The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1888.

The Week.

THERE is one feature in the present discussion which ought, we should think, to fill the more intelligent Republicans with honest shame, and that is the importance attached to the opinions of English newspapers—importance so great that quotations from them of the most commonplace kind have actually been forged or garbled, and made to do duty in the very fore-front of the protectionist battle. It would seem as if the high-tariff men really had no body of economical doctrine of their own, and could not maintain a single economical proposition on its merits, or without showing that Englishmen are opposed to it or dislike it, or refute an economical proposition without showing that some Englishman of note has defended it or relied on it. It is not, of course, surprising that attempts are made to capture the Irish vote by advocating things on the ground that they are disagreeable to Englishmen; but that Americans should find it difficult or impossible to frame or revise their own system of taxation without finding out how Englishmen feel on the subject, is, we think, on the whole a most humiliating spectacle. In fact, we cannot recall anything in modern politics quite like it. People often shape, have shaped, and must continue to shape their foreign policy by reference to the aims, opinions, or wishes of foreigners; but domestic taxation has always hitherto been considered a matter on which home opinion was all-sufficient. But taxing one's self to spite foreigners is something absolutely new in the art of government. As a piece of self-immolation it beats hollow biting one's own nose off. Is there nobody among the high-tariff doctors who is able to draft a tax bill and prove its soundness without producing a pocketful of cuttings from English newspapers to show that he has made no mistake?

The Boston *Journal*, that funny old party hack, in the course of an attempt to extenuate the recent forged quotations by maintaining that if the English newspapers to which the quotations have been ascribed, did not say this, they said something like it, declares that "the Democratic charges of 'infamous forgery' in this connection are extremely heated and hasty." But if the writer will reflect on the matter a little, we think he will perceive that there is a marked difference between forgeries and misquotations made during a Presidential canvass for the purpose of influencing votes, and those which he is doubtless in the habit of making himself in off years, when there is no serious business before the country. In this State, for instance, there is no law against spreading false news or forged letters or documents if you do it simply for fun, or in the ordinary course of journalistic business; but if you do it in order to raise the price of any commodity, even peanuts or candy, you go to jail. That is, when the direct consequence of your lying will be to cause your fellow-citizens pecuniary loss, you are punished for it, while if you lie, like "Ananias," simply through excess of animal spirits or to show what a live journalist you are, or in the hope of making a contemporary feel badly, nobody takes any notice of it. So, also, your stories about the things you see in the London *Times* and *Spectator* and *Economist*, and other wicked British sheets, may be anything you please in ordinary years, when they have no direct influence on action. But when you produce them for the express purpose of deceiving people into voting one way instead of another, on a certain day, so as to seriously influence the administration and legislation of your country, you surely will not deny, in calm moments, that when caught, you ought, were the law what it should be, to go to jail, and that the victims of your wiles are excusable in feeling "heated and hasty" towards you.

This topic is almost a ridiculous one for a newspaper intended for adults; and yet the circulation of these silly fibs about the English press and the Cobden Club among workingmen is almost the only thing with which the friends of tariff reform have to contend in this canvass. For economical arguments against the President's position or the Mills bill we look everywhere in vain. There are none in the protectionist newspapers, magazines, or speeches. When you ask them how they would dispose of the surplus, how they know that the tariff raises wages, why wages are higher in free-trade England than protectionist France or Germany, on what the rate of wages depends, they simply run away and shout "Cobden Club," "Free-trader," and "London *Times*." And yet there is no doubt that these mendacious colored cards, which recall the lowest appeals to ignorance and prejudice ever made to a mob in the days of slavery, do work mischief, and may influence the national decision on a great question of financial policy. And the pity of it is that these appeals come from the party of "virtue and temperance"!

We approve of Senator Sherman's resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to examine and report upon the relations of the United States with Great Britain and Canada, with such measures as are expedient to promote friendly commercial and political intercourse between them. We also approve of the plan to give them leave to sit during the recess of Congress. We doubt not that Mr. Sherman's intentions are honorable. He sincerely desires to bring about a commercial union between the United States and Canada as a leading step to political union. He perceives, and has all along perceived, that retaliation, whether of the kind proposed in the act of 1887, or of the kind more recently proposed by the President and passed by the House, will be a hindrance to any kind of union, commercial or political. He stated in a newspaper interview the other day that the House bill ought not to pass the Senate, and that the House Republicans had acted a cowardly part in not making a fight against it. As the bill has been referred to the committee of which he is chairman, it becomes pretty plain that it will *not* become a law before the Presidential election. Probably the Senator's resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to consider the whole subject, with leave to sit during the recess of Congress, is the device agreed upon by Republican Senators to stave off the Retaliation Bill with the least amount of damage to the party.

Under our present tariff, what with the high price of wool, the high price of woollen cloth, and the high price of manufactured clothing, the manufacture of shoddy for the clothing of the poor has become a great and flourishing industry. The sole reason why it flourishes is that good woollen cloth is so dear that it is out of the reach of a large body of poor people. No human being would buy shoddy if he could afford wool. No man would wear a shoddy coat if he could afford a woollen one. No kind of coat becomes shabby and ragged so soon as a shoddy coat. The aim of every friend of his kind to-day, in the United States and in every other country, should be to kill the shoddy manufacture, to make it unprofitable, to banish it from the land, to deliver every American citizen from the humiliating necessity of wearing shoddy, and make every American citizen ashamed to manufacture it. That in this favored land a large body of the people should be clad in it is surely a national disgrace. In spite of all this, however, seventeen firms have signed a circular actually pretending that they have a vested right to clothe the poor American in shoddy whether he likes it or not; to get the Government to stop him on his way to the market to get a good woollen suit, and fine him heavily if he refuses to put on a suit of shoddy. Nay, they will not even let him get cheaper shoddy than theirs. If they catch him going to a European for ten pounds of shoddy, they seize him and fine him one dollar for not buying their shoddy.

There are three points in Gen. Harrison's letter which we think cannot be too earnestly considered. They comprise his belief that it will not be necessary to repeal the internal-revenue taxes in order to preserve intact our protective system, and his recommendations for so reducing the surplus as to make such repeal unnecessary. We place these points side by side with what his recommendations really call for:

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HARRISON'S PROPOSALS.	THEIR REAL MEANING.
We are not likely to be called upon, I think, to make a present choice between the surrender of our protective system and the entire repeal of the internal taxes. Such a contingency, in view of the present relation of expenditures to revenue, is remote.	Preservation of the present high tariff, ranging from 30 to 130 per cent. ad valorem, or levying an average tax of 47.10 per cent. on dutiable goods.
The surplus now in the Treasury should be used in the purchase of bonds.	Reduction of the surplus by payment of the public debt in advance of maturity, at premiums ranging from 7 to 29¾ per cent.
The nation, not less than the States, is dependent for prosperity and security upon the intelligence and morality of the people. This common interest very early suggested national aid in the establishment and endowment of schools and colleges in the new States. There is, I believe, a present exigency that calls for still more liberal and direct appropriations in aid of common-school education in the States.	Passage of the Blair bill, taking $77,000,000 from the Treasury.

There is supposed to be a large mercantile interest in New York yearning for increased trade with South America. They made some noise in the campaign of 1884. Mr. Blaine's fervid utterances on that subject when he was Secretary of State, we remember, were frequently quoted at that time. Well, it seems as though we were on the eve of this jubilee, since we learn from the Buenos Ayres *Standard* that Mr. Charles Lix-Kleet, in behalf of the Chamber of Commerce of that city, is putting up two sets of samples of wool produced in the Argentine Republic, suitable for the manufacturers of the United States, one set intended as a gift to President Cleveland and the other for the Argentine Consul at New York, to be by him placed on exhibition. There are sixteen samples, and each sample has a descriptive list attached showing the breed of sheep, the province where grown, and the amount of shrinkage in scouring and preparing it for the mill. All this, the *Standard* says, is in consequence of the passage of the Mills bill in the House, for, although the bill may be thrown out by the Senate, the *Standard* is convinced that wool will be put on the free list before long, and that "Argentine raw wools will be shipped from this port in thousands of bales *as in the old days*, when, with a more liberal tariff, the States filled our roads with her ships, and, in the aggregate of our imports and exports, figured for 20 per cent., while to-day she stands at the bottom of the ladder at 6 per cent." Is not this a dreadful outlook? Has Mr. Lix-Kleet no bowels?

Another infant industry that seems in danger of being extinguished for want of protection is that of milking cows. The Mills bill put "fresh milk" on the free list. The present duty on fresh milk is 10 per cent. It is thus that an infant American industry is protected at the expense of the American infants who drink the milk. Instantly there was a great splutter on the Republican side of the House about the injustice to the American farmer of a measure which proposed to "inundate" the country with foreign fresh milk. Mr. Lyman of Iowa was particularly prompt to repel this "direct attack upon the farmers of my section." Mr. Bacon of New York accordingly took pains to procure from the Treasury Department the statistics of fresh-milk importation, and found that all the milk imported, except a mere trifle, was entered at Detroit and Port Huron, Michigan, and Burlington, Vermont, and that the total importations for the fiscal year 1888 were of the value of only $5,038. As fresh milk is not sent from central Iowa to eastern Michigan, or northern Vermont, Mr. Lyman's constituents must have breathed more freely when they saw the result of Mr. Bacon's researches. Probably Mr. Lyman agreed with Gen. Harrison that it is not the *step* that is to be feared, so much as the direction of it, and that the same principle that would make fresh milk free would, in the end, put Indian corn and salt pork on the free list, to the everlasting ruin of Iowa farmers.

Mr. Theo. Foulk of Westchester, Pa., puts some questions respecting the duty on nickel, saying that there is a story current in Westchester that foreign nickel has driven American nickel out of the market, in consequence of the want of any duty on that article in the existing tariff. The history of tariff legislation on this subject is rather interesting, and is worth recounting. In the general tariff of 1861 (the Morrill tariff) nickel was put on the free list. Previously to that time it had been subject to a duty of 5 per cent. under the clause "metals not otherwise provided for." In 1862, when the Morrill tariff was under revision, a Pennsylvania Congressman (Mr. Thayer, we believe) made the important announcement that a nickel mine had been discovered in this country, and he moved, therefore, that nickel be subjected to a duty of 50 per cent. ad valorem. In other words, since nickel had been discovered in this country, it ought to be made more difficult for American citizens to obtain that metal than it was before. Mr. Morrill of Vermont stoutly opposed this suggestion, saying that nickel was largely used in the manufacture of German silver, and that it was unjust to put such a tax on the raw material of an important industry. Nevertheless, he would consent to a moderate duty. The duty was finally fixed at 10 per cent. While this debate was in progress, a colloquy took place between Thaddeus Stevens and a fellow-Congressman which created a great deal of merriment, but naturally it did not get into the *Congressional Globe*. The latter protested to Mr. Stevens that it would be better and cheaper for the Government to buy this nickel mine outright than to put such a duty on the article as Mr. Thayer proposed. "O," replied the sardonic leader of the House, "*let them buy it the other way.*" That is what they have been doing ever since, but they do not own it yet.

The duty settled upon in the revision of the Morrill tariff in 1862 was 10 per cent. A few years later it was raised to 15 per cent. In 1870 it was raised to 30 cents per pound, and it stood at that rate until 1883, when it was reduced to 15 cents per pound, that being the existing rate. The Mills bill proposes to reduce it to 10 cents per pound. The owner of the nickel mine in question is (or was) Mr. Joseph Wharton of Philadelphia, who wrote a letter a few days ago on the subject of professorships of political economy in American colleges, bewailing the shortsightedness of rich men who give money to institutions of learning without stipulating that they should teach the sound doctrine that the American people should patronize their own nickel mines, etc., etc. Now, the answer to Mr. Wharton is that the American people do not own any nickel mines. He owns them. His argument is, that American colleges should be coerced to teach our ingenuous youth to prevent themselves from buying any nickel but his, and to fine themselves and their neighbors at the rate of fifteen cents per pound if they do — all this in conjunction with other suitable fines, penalties, and forfeitures for the buying of wool, salt, jute bagging, etc. The trouble is, that the colleges will not do what Mr. Wharton wants to have done, even under coercion. Being institutions of science, they are bound to teach science. Protectionism is not science. It is the art of taxing the many for the benefit of the few, and persuading the many that the dollars come back to them through the clouds, or in the night time, or by magic, for nobody has ever been able to tell how the money comes back or to prove that it comes back at all. Politicians may teach this hocus-pocus; colleges will not.

We take much pleasure in informing Mr. James P. Foster, President of the Republican League of the United States, that his celebrated "Fat" Circular has been translated into Danish, and is about to be widely distributed among the Scandinavian portion of our population in various parts of the country. We shall be glad to furnish Mr. Foster with an early copy of the translation, and to be favored with any suggestions which he may make about the idiomatic construction of his famous saying, "These are strong words, and bitter, but they are true." The accomplished translator has had considerable trouble in finding a Danish synonym for the word "cravenal," and also in bringing out clearly in the foreign tongue the full significance of the term "fat"; but he is convinced that he has succeeded fairly well in both cases. Mr. Foster will of course be glad to see these and other features of the translation. We are glad to inform him at this time of this spreading of his fame into other languages, for he is suffering, as all other great men always have done, from the jealousy of his contemporaries. The National Republican Committee, rumor says, are declaring that Foster is a "nuisance," and has what they call the "big-head trouble;" but he must not mind them. It is our unprejudiced opinion that Foster's work in the campaign is far

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more useful for good than that of the National Republican Committee.

The striking feature of the election for Governor in Arkansas is the large increase in the opposition vote, without any corresponding decrease in the Democratic vote. Thus, while the Democratic vote is 8,564 in excess of the same vote in 1886, the opposition vote shows a gain of 30,163. The Democratic vote is 1,659 less than it was in 1884, and the opposition vote shows an increase of 28,696. The explanation of this is two fold. The Republicans this year supported the Union-Labor candidate for Governor, putting no ticket of their own into the field, and in 1886 a third candidate, one Wheeler, received 19,169 votes. The changes not thus accounted for are due to Democratic indifference and local faction fights. The Little Rock *Gazette* (Dem.) says of the result: "The time has not come yet in our elections when it is thought that the State ticket cannot take care of itself, with a safe trading margin for the hard-pressed local tickets. We read the signs of the times incorrectly if this election do not prove a decisive turning-point in our politics. There will be more life and vigor and wise management, less personal politics and fewer factional divisions, than before in the last ten years, and our majorities will increase in proportion."

The political situation in this State is rather worse than it was when Tweed was plundering in the city and the Canal Ring was plundering at Albany. We say that it is rather worse, because the Governor of the State at that time was personally an honest man. It has been proved in a public investigation, and is not denied, that this man Hill received $10,000 of the money of the taxpayers of New York city to pay a note which he gave for campaign purposes. If this is not wrong, nothing is wrong. If this act can be condoned by the voters, anything can be condoned. If the taxpayers of the rural districts think that because this money was taken from the taxpayers of the city, and not from them, therefore their money is safe with Mr. Hill in the Governor's chair, they are very green. If they think that society and law and government can be carried on when such transactions are endorsed and ratified at the polls, they are grievously mistaken. For our part, we will not, either directly or indirectly, either actively or passively, contribute to the reëlection of Mr. Hill. We shall advise all Independents and all good citizens of whatever political faith to vote for Warner Miller. We think that the State will give its electoral vote to Cleveland and Thurman in spite of this bad nomination; but whatever may be the consequences, we will not, either by silence or otherwise, join in undermining the foundations of social order by putting Mr. Hill again in the Governor's chair.

We regret to see that there are no signs of the support of Mr. Hewitt by the Republican party organization in case he takes the field as the opponent of an undesirable Tammany candidate. On the contrary, the organs of the Republican Machine are already calling for a straight Republican candidate, on the old pretence that in case of a Democratic split such a candidate might be elected. This is the familiar Machine scheme of securing a basis for a "deal." There is no desire in it for anything else. The advocates of the straight ticket are perfectly well aware that there is not the slightest hope of success. They are well aware, also, that its presence in the field will be a direct help to the success of the Tammany ticket. Yet they will put it forth this year, as they have repeatedly done before, in the hope of thus getting, through "deals" and "dickers," a share in the "spoils." Mr. Roosevelt was brought forward in this way two years ago, with no hope of his success, for, as he himself confessed after election, he only ran to preserve the party organization. To do this, he and his party ran the risk of defeating Mr. Hewitt and electing Mr. George.

Mr. Richard A. Proctor's death is a very tragic and pathetic incident, and shows how little security against infection there is in any district in which yellow fever is prevalent. But we trust it was a bit of reporter's coloring which made the doctors predict his death "within ten or twelve hours" as soon as they saw him, although he was then only in the first stage of the disease; and made it seem as if the main interest of his case afterwards lay in its following the usual course, and that all that was done for him was, to use the language of the *Times's* report, "to watch the case, first in the interest of the public, second in that of the Health Department, and third in that of the eminent patient." There was surely some doctor present, ready and willing to watch the case first in the interest of "the eminent patient," and leave the other order of watching to somebody else. In other words, there was surely some effort made to save Mr. Proctor's life. Yellow fever is not a necessarily fatal disease: the majority of persons attacked by it recover. We feel sure he was not treated simply as an interesting case, and let die in order to verify a diagnosis.

The first meeting of the Judicial Commission in London on Monday brought out in a striking way the oddity of the course the *Times* has been pursuing towards the Parnellites. The charges it has been making against them were definite enough for use in political warfare, and definite enough to stand a libel suit on, but not by any means definite enough to put into a formal indictment. Consequently, when the counsel for the *Times* was called on by the Court to assume the rôle of a prosecutor, and to divide his case into formal specifications, he was quite taken aback, and tried hard to occupy the place of an *amicus curiæ*, assisting the Court with "information" in an "inquisition;" but this the judges would not allow. The order granting to each side full access to the papers and documents of the other side is also very important, and naturally enough each side professes the utmost satisfaction with it, although the *Times* resisted it in the beginning. Which side it will hurt most it is hard to say. The "proofs" of the *Times* are undoubtedly of a very flimsy description, as regards the Irish members of Parliament, however much discredit they may bring on the National League and some of its branches; but, on the other hand, the overhauling of the books and papers of the League may bring to light some discreditable things of which the *Times* has never heard. This contingency, however, would have more importance if the case were to be tried before a jury, which would be more or less influenced by extraneous matter. On men like Judge Hannen it will have no effect at all. What has been established by the proceedings thus far is, that the *Times* must formulate charges and prove them, and that both sides must submit to the Court everything bearing on the investigation, however private and confidential — which means, among other things, that the *Times* must tell where it got the letters ascribed to Parnell.

The Pope is again in serious trouble with the Italian Government. He has sent a circular despatch through his nuncios to the various European governments, describing in strong terms the increasing annoyances and inconveniences of his situation in the Vatican. One of the things which trouble him is neither more nor less than the adoption of a new penal code in Italy, which provides severe penalties for everybody convicted of destroying, or trying even in words to destroy, the territorial integrity of the kingdom. This of course covers the case of all persons advocating publicly the restoration of the temporal power, a class which includes a great many priests and bishops. Moreover, a recent decision of the Italian Council of State makes imperative, in order to give them validity as regards Church property or functions, the registration in the usual manner of all decrees, or orders, or decisions issuing from the Vatican. Failing such registration, the courts are to treat them as null and void. This the Pope treats as a direct blow at the "exterritoriality" which is supposed to have been guaranteed to him. These are positive and definable griefs. There are others which, though not positive, are none the less real. The admission of Italy to the Triple Alliance, and the friendly way in which Austria and Germany treat her, also wounds the Pope, and makes him feel that there is not much real feeling behind the compliments which the Powers lavish on him, and the deference with which his place in the world is spoken of. His recent Encyclical, too, in which he pointed out the snares and fallacies and dangers of modern Liberalism, has somehow fallen very flat. Nobody has paid much attention to it. The newspapers have not even discussed it. Finally, the people of Rome, who have hitherto been supposed faithful to the Papal tradition, have gone and elected for the first time a Municipal Council with a Liberal majority. It is not wonderful that under these circumstances he should begin to talk once more of removing to some place where his purely spiritual character would come out in stronger relief.

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"ALMOST A POLITICAL REVOLUTION."

THE complete returns from Maine are now at hand, and an analysis of them will show how much ground there was for Mr. Blaine's claim that the result was "almost a political revolution." We give the figures side by side with those of the September election in 1884:

Governor.	1888.	Governor.	1884.
Burleigh (Rep.)....	79,663	Robie (Rep.).....	78,912
Putnam (Dem.)....	61,108	Redman (Dem.)....	59,061
Cushing (Prohib.)..	2,971	Eustis (Prohib.)....	1,190
Simmons (Labor)..	979	Eaton (G'b'k.).....	3,234
Total	144,661	Total	142,397
Republican plurality in 1884.....			19,851
Republican plurality in 1888.....			18,495
Republican loss on plurality.....			1,356
Republican increase on total vote of 1884.			691
Democratic increase on total vote of 1884.			2,047

These figures tell the story so plainly that it is scarcely necessary to comment upon them. The reader will search them in vain for any evidence of Mr. Blaine's "revolution," or for any evidence of his other assertion that "many Democrats turned against the Mills bill." If there were such conversions, there must have been a large Republican defection to offset them. Instead of being "stampeded" by the free-trade cry, the Democrats have more than held their own. They have increased their total vote of four years ago by more than 3 per cent., while the Republicans have increased theirs less than 1 per cent. Whatever this may be evidence of, it is not a sign that the Democratic party is weaker than it was before the tariff-reform issue was raised.

The significance of this result is very great when we consider the peculiar advantages which Maine presented as a field for Republican gains this year. On the fishery issue and the question of free lumber alone, there was reason for thinking that inroads might be made upon the Democratic strength. Mr. Blaine evidently thought so, for he made those questions very prominent in his speeches, all of which were confined almost entirely to them and to the dangers of free trade. The Republicans had the advantage of his personal efforts in their campaign, he bringing to the work all the prestige of his first appearance after a European tour, in which he had observed personally the baleful effects of free trade abroad.

Furthermore, the election was held before the national campaign had been fairly begun, and before there had been anything which could be called an adequate presentation of the Democratic side of the tariff question. The National Democratic Committee sent no speakers into Maine to answer Mr. Blaine's arguments. Almost the only outside Democratic orator who went there was Col. Fellows, and we have never heard him spoken of as a persuasive orator upon economic questions. In addition to Mr. Blaine's personal leadership, the Republicans had the aid of one of the most thoroughly organized political machines in the country, and the skill in the working of it which comes only with long practice. Yet, with all these advantages, they have failed to carry the State by as large a plurality as they had four years ago, though the total vote now is over 2,000 larger than it was then. They have failed, not only to draw away any of the Democratic strength, but to secure more than half of their share of the increased vote.

We are not disposed to insist that this result is a "certain harbinger of victory all along the line in November" for the Democrats, but the figures certainly fail to sustain the *Tribune's* claim that it is such a "harbinger" for the Republicans. Calmly interpreted, it means simply that both parties stand substantially to-day as they stood four years ago—that is, the tariff issue has not perceptibly changed the party lines. There have undoubtedly been changes back and forth, but these have about evenly offset each other. This being the case, the Maine election, so far as it has significance, shows that the advantages in the November election are in favor of the Democrats. Nobody questioned, before Mr. Cleveland's tariff message in December last, that he would be reëlected if renominated. The doubt which has since been felt was due entirely to the inability to ascertain just how much could be accomplished by the free-trade bugaboo. Oregon seemed to indicate that the Democratic strength could be seriously diminished by it. Vermont failed to give such indication, because, whatever the issue, that State is always overwhelmingly Republican. For the first time unmistakable light on the subject comes from Maine. Taken in connection with the fact that there are still nearly two months before election, that those two months will be given up to the most energetic efforts to educate the voters upon the tariff issue, and to dispel whatever may remain of the doubt raised by the Republican misrepresentations and silly "British" forgeries, we think the friends of tariff reform can possess their souls in patience, and await without trepidation the progress of events.

COMFORT FOR THE TIMID.

THE great objection to the Mills bill in the eyes of a good many Republicans is the one which has found such strong expression in Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, namely, that, coming from a party more or less favorable in theory to free trade, it would in Democratic hands eventually lead to free trade. In other words, he finds fault with it not so much — to use his own words — on account of the length of the step which the bill makes, as "the direction of it." In this, there is no doubt, he utters what is in the minds of a great many people who are in favor of a moderate tariff reduction, and who do not really believe that the reductions made by the Mills bill are too great either in amount or number. As a matter of fact, these are not so great in amount as those recommended by the Tariff Commission of 1883, composed entirely of protectionists. What such Republicans say to themselves is, that they would not object to such a bill if it had been drafted or carried by known friends of the principle of protection, who in revising the tariff were sincerely anxious to maintain its protective features; but that, coming from men of whom a large proportion are undoubtedly in favor of a tariff for revenue only, and some of whom are ardent advocates of free trade, they fear the revision now proposed would be used to secure further concessions in the same direction, and finally do away with the tariff altogether. They, in short, put the question which British fathers used in the last century to put to young men who were attentive to their daughters without popping the question—"whether their intentions were honorable."

We touched on this point last week when commenting on Gen. Harrison's letter of acceptance, and we return to it because we really think it is keeping on the fence a good many sincere and intelligent Republicans who do not know much about tariff, and have to take even the facts of the present controversy on trust. They hear so much on both sides that they are bewildered; and, while recognizing, as they cannot help doing, that both parties are committed to tariff revision, are afraid to accept revision from the one they know least about and have the poorest opinion of. Now, to these we take leave to point out—with a perfect understanding of their difficulty—that the Mills bill, even if enacted, could only lead to something worse than the Mills bill through an overthrow of popular government. For no matter what its promoters may wish it to be, or seek to make it, it must remain for the people of the United States simply an experiment. It is, in its very nature, a law whose operation must be open to every eye. Everybody will witness its effects in some sphere or other. If it injures the woollen industry to have wool put on the free list, or the canning and roofing and utensil industry to have tin plates put on the free list, the whole country will know it. If it makes people feel cheap to wear cheap clothes, they will surely let it appear in some way. If it lowers wages and shuts up factories and causes even slight general distress, of course the public will perceive it at once, and all progress in the free-trade direction will be peremptorily arrested. The bill will be repealed, and the old duties will be restored, and perhaps even be raised. The Democrats and the Mugwumps will be discredited to an extraordinary degree, and the return of the Republicans to power for a long period made certain. The "British free-traders," too, will hide their diminished heads and trouble us no more.

"Oh, but," it may be said, "we do not want to run the risk of even such slight damage as you describe. We do not wish to make experiments likely to prove hurtful even in a slight degree." Yes, but it must be remembered, in saying all this, we are assuming that the tariff must be revised by somebody, that both parties are pledged to it, and that the revision of one would differ but little from the revision of the other, and that the main question before the country is—Which shall be trusted with revision? All the evil consequences of the Mills revision which we have commented on above, or other consequences of exactly the

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same kind, would follow from *any* revision which lowered duties and enlarged the free list, no matter how good the intentions of the revisers might be. In other words, any revision must be an experiment, and if it works badly, of course it would be abandoned.

But it is impossible for the most charitably disposed to resist the suspicion that a great part of the opposition to the Mills bill is due to the belief that the experiment will succeed; that the country will benefit so much by it that it will ask for more of the same—or, in other words, that the Mills additions to the free list will have somewhat the same result as the addition of hides and quinine had.

SOME CHARGES AND SPECIFICATIONS.

We shall to-day mention a few gentlemen who owe the American people and Gen. Harrison, as the friend of "intelligence and morality," some information or explanation on account of sayings and doings in this canvass. First there is

Depew, Chauncey M.—President of the New York Central Railroad, and noted after-dinner speaker. He, with intent to counteract the influence of the President's message, declared, on the authority of "one of the most eminent business men in Holland," that between the years 1884 and 1888 Holland had changed her revenue system from one of protection to free trade, with disastrous results to the trade and industry of the country; the fact being that no such change had occurred, and that Holland had been from long before Mr. Depew's birth, and was at the time of his declaration, the most free-trade country in Europe. All this in the New York *Tribune* of February 26, 1888.

Mr. Depew returned on Thursday from a European tour. Everybody is glad to see him back. We observe that he made some pleasant observations on landing about his experiences in England, and about the deplorable economical condition of Europe generally, but had not a word to say about Holland, and yet Holland must by this time offer a still better illustration than last year of the danger of changing from a protectionist to a free-trade régime, if the story of that "eminent business man" be true. Why did not Mr. Depew look this person up?

Next we have

Blaine, James G.—Greatest Living Statesman, who on his return home said that the "entire savings" of the wage-workers of Great Britain and Ireland were not so great as the deposits "in the savings banks" of Massachusetts of the wage-workers of that State. On being shown that this was a gross blunder, that he had overlooked the postal savings banks in England, to say nothing of the coöperative associations and Friendly and Building Societies, he went to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'—to which the *Evening Post* referred him—and there discovered, in the article on Savings Banks, that other people than "wage workers" used the British savings banks. Out of this new information he then actually constructed, not a retraction, nor even a fresh blunder, but apparently a positive falsehood, for he gave the classes of depositors he found in the 'Encyclopædia,' but withheld the proportion the depositors of each class bore to the whole, as furnished by the official statistics, and substituted therefor a proportion of his own, which, he said, was furnished him by "a man" in England, which made it as low as 10 per cent.; or one furnished by somebody else, which made it as high as 25 per cent. This he did with the official figures before his eyes, which showed that of 1,188,147 depositors, 935,195 were tradesmen or their assistants, small farmers, clerks, mechanics, and artisans, domestic servants, charwomen, nurses and laundresses, minors (including apprentices), dress-makers, milliners, shop-women, and female artisans, soldiers, sailors, boatmen, fishermen, policemen, letter-carriers, revenue officers, pensioners, railway men and their wives, excluding 138,858 women described only as "married women, widows, and spinsters," a large proportion of whom are doubtless wage-earners also. All this on the 11th of August, in the State of New York, and 24th of August in the State of Maine.

Next we have

Porter, Robert B.—Sometime member of a Commission to report on the tariff, and now editor of the *Press*, the leading protectionist organ in this city, who, with the view of supporting the proposition that low taxation is bad for agriculture, said:

> "In view of this terrible loss of the productive force of England, is it surprising that a Royal Commission recently said:
>
> "'All increased imports of agricultural produce consequent upon the withdrawal of labor from the cultivation of our own soil, the deterioration of its condition, and the diminution of its products, and all additional tonnage of shipping employed in carrying such imports, are indications not of growth, but of the decay of our productive capacity'"—

the fact being that no Royal Commission ever said anything of the kind, and that the silly passage he here quotes is taken, not from the report of the Royal Commission, but from the dissenting remarks of a minority of four out of the twenty-two members, and these notoriously the most obscure and least competent of the whole. All this in the New York *Independent* of September 6, with manifest intent to deceive. Next comes

Rice, Allen Thorndike.—Amateur Boy, and editor of the *North American Review*, who caused or permitted the appearance of a "symposium" on a text furnished by a pretended extract from the London *Times*, the origin of which he had made no attempt to trace, and for the authenticity of which he had no guarantee, and the publication of which, long after such authenticity had been denied, was manifestly intended to prevent the proper and intelligent discussion of American taxation, and substitute therefor ignorant denunciation of a foreign nation, which has no authority, or jurisdiction, or power of legislation in the United States. All this in his monthly newspaper, on or about the 1st of September, 1888.

THE STAMPEDE IN ST. PAUL.

The Stock Exchange had one of its periodical spasms last Thursday, arising from the passing of a dividend by the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Company on its common stock and the reduction of the dividend on its preferred stock. The spasm extended to the whole list of active stocks, including many that show a progressive and undoubted gain in earnings, both gross and net. This feature of the convulsion is nothing to surprise us, since it is human nature to "run" when missiles are falling; and, of course, when we run we drop everything which might impede our flight. "Running" on the Stock Exchange means dropping your property in a hurry. When you have run far enough to see that the missiles were not coming your way at all, you can go back and look for your property, but you will sometimes find that the men who have held it for you while you were away want something for their trouble.

It is not the stampede of the market in general that calls for comment, but the stampede of the St. Paul crowd in particular. It was known some days before the meeting of the St. Paul Directors that no dividend on the common stock had been earned, and the indications were sufficiently plain that if one were declared, it could only be paid by borrowing the money. These facts were published by the *Financial Chronicle* of Saturday, September 8. It is true that the last half of the year is always the period of greatest earnings, and that the returns for this period were not precisely known to the public. But all the indications, and especially the rate wars in the West, pointed to some shrinkage in the last half, if not as great as that of the first. To pay fixed charges and the usual dividends in St. Paul requires considerably more than $10,000,000, and it was known to everybody who had occasion to know, that the net earnings would not reach that figure, even if the second half year should turn out as well as the second half of 1887, as possibly it may yet do. There would be, even in this case, a shrinkage equal to a year's dividend on the common stock, *i. e.*, about $1,500,000. But the Street seems to have been buoyed up, in face of the figures accessible, by the belief that the Directors would nevertheless declare the dividend and raise the money to pay it somehow. In other words, the stock was kept up above 70 on the theory that two and two make five instead of four, and it was not until this belief was dashed by a solemn vote of the Directors that the common stock fell five points, and subsequently five more.

The action of the Directors is to be commended, and it would not call for commendation, but would be looked upon as a matter of course, but for the fact that boards of direction often do the very thing that the St. Paul people were expected to do—declare dividends that have not been earned. It is charged that the St. Paul Board has been a sinner in this way aforetime, and has thus fostered a belief that two and two make five in Wall Street, although only four in the public schools. Whether the charge is true or not,

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the investing public are to be congratulated that it is not true this time. There is a law in this State which forbids, under heavy penalties, the declaring of dividends not earned; but, like many other laws which look well in print, it is not enforced in any systematic way. If the Stock Exchange would devote some of the superfluous strength which it exhibits now and then in "running," to the enforcement of this law, there would be a healthier tone in the market, and more legitimate business would come to it from the outer world.

The cause of the shrinkage in St. Paul earnings is the same as that which has afflicted the Burlington, the Northwestern, and other roads, which have for their principal field the fan-shaped territory between Chicago on the east and St. Paul, Omaha, and Kansas City on the west. Too much railroad building has been followed by too much giving away of services. So the candle has been burned at both ends. There have been more roads, and consequently more fixed charges, than were necessary, and the rates have been unduly lowered. Some new business has been created, but not nearly enough to recompense the outlay. In this losing game the Burlington and the St. Paul have been the great sinners and great sufferers. It is not for us to apportion the blame, nor is it necessary that it should be apportioned at all, since the punishment keeps pace with it. Unfortunately it does not stop there. The innocent suffer with the guilty. Nor is it easy to say where the guilt lies. Every one of the Northwestern trunk-line managers will tell you that he never built a mile of road beyond his original trunk line that he was not obliged to build. He means by this that, in order to save his own traffic and to head off somebody else who was going to take it away from him, he has been obliged to build all his extensions, one after another. The problem is apparently insoluble. At all events it has not yet been solved, although the ablest men in the country, moved by the strongest of all possible motives, have given their best efforts to it for a great many years. It cannot be said, however, that society at large has been a sufferer from this multiplication of the means of transport. On the contrary it has been a gainer.

The stampede in St. Paul will be less disastrous than it would have been if the Directors had voted for a dividend not earned — that is, for a dividend that would necessitate borrowing, and a consequent enlargement of fixed charges for all future time. The trouble in that case would have been far more serious, and would have impaired public confidence in all railroad management. As the case now stands, each property may rest upon its own merits. The business outlook has not been altered by anything that has taken place inside the St. Paul Board of Directors or inside the Stock Exchange. The only doubtful element in the fall trade—the possible curtailment of the corn crop by frost—has been almost wholly removed. The prospect is, upon the whole, favorable to a large and remunerative trade, and even the St. Paul Road, as its Vice-President says, will have every car and engine called into the highest state of activity.

LOOSE PSYCHICAL RESEARCH.

THE last number of the Proceedings of the English Society for Psychical Research is largely given up to French experimentation, and in particular more than one-half of it (151 pages) is the contribution of M. Charles Richet. It has been objected to the English society that its members are chiefly literary men, and that they are for that reason incapable of forming just ideas as to the nature of evidence. M. Richet is a scientific man, a Professor of Physiology of the Medical Faculty of Paris, and the editor of the *Revue Scientifique;* but, in spite of that, he exhibits a plentiful lack of scientific caution in his reasoning processes. It is a first principle of evidence that if testimony is of a worthless character to begin with, it is not strengthened by the fact that there is a large amount of it to be had. But M. Richet is of a different opinion. "Comprendrait-on," he says, "que tous ces recueils, *Sphinx*, . . . *Light*, *Banner of Light*, etc., ne fussent remplis que d'impostures et d'illusions?" Most people would very readily comprehend that it is perfectly possible for a large amount of evidence to exist of such a kind that a car-load of it is of exactly the same weight as the smallest assignable quantity. There are plenty of people in the world whose testimony in regard to matters of any intricacy is absolutely without value, and there is no reason why, if it amuses them to do so, they should not spend their money in securing the publication of their worthless opinions to an unlimited extent. The Boston papers have recently contained accounts of the exposure of a "materializing" medium, a Mrs. Cowen, in a corner of whose room was found a trap-door communicating with an adjoining room by means of a trap-door in that room and a hole in a brick partition in the cellar. They publish side by side with the exposure several long articles from the *Banner of Light* describing the extreme rigidity of the tests under which this medium "materialized," and stating that the most sceptical had been convinced that there was no possibility of fraud in her manifestations. It is never safe to take it for granted that pretended evidence is real evidence merely because it has appeared in print. The ordinary man is by habit and education totally unfit for detecting the tricks of skilful impostors, and M. Richet shows very little knowledge of the capabilities of human nature if he "regards it as *impossible* that this immense illusion should prolong itself for nearly a century without there being some truth behind it."

There is another fundamental principle that has escaped the notice of M. Richet. It is that coincidences which appear only after the event are absolutely worthless, except to suggest further investigation. There are hardly any two objects in the world which will not be found to have some quality in common if one allows himself to search among all possible qualities. It is only when the quality is predesignate, that is, when one is in search of that particular quality, that its repeated occurrence is worthy of remark. For instance, Mr. Peirce writes down the numbers representing the ages of the first five poets in a Dictionary of Biography, and, by casting about among all possible mathematical properties, finds several curious ones which they have in common. This is not strange; but if the ages of several other poets, when examined for this particular property, were found to possess it, then one would begin to suspect that there is some law of nature regulating the age at which a poet dies. One of M. Richet's experiments consists in giving a drawing of a globe surmounted by a cross in a sealed envelope to a patient, who thereupon makes a drawing of a chalice. Although there is no resemblance between them, "one will be astonished to see," says M. Richet, that they are both religious figures. But, in fact, hardly any one in his senses will feel the slightest shade of astonishment at this. Two of his subjects are named Alice and Eugénie. Alice predicts, in a state of trance, that one of M. Richet's children will be sick within a fortnight, with a pain *in the right shoulder and the neck*. Three days later, M. Richet goes to Eugénie, who perceives that one of the children is about to be sick with bronchitis and diarrhea. Nothing happens to the children; they remain in perfect health, but Eugénie's mother has an attack of rheumatism, with pain *in the right shoulder and in the neck*. The italics are M. Richet's, but he is mistaken in thinking that such a coincidence as this is deserving of italics.

Under the head of *action à distance*, M. Richet relates that he mistakes some one on the street for a M. Lacassagne, who a few hours later actually appears in his office; and again that he speaks with a friend of his of a certain former teacher whom they had in common, and soon afterwards they meet this teacher on the street. These occurrences strike M. Richet as very marvellous, and he proceeds to calculate the probability of their being due to chance. In doing so, he makes an extraordinary blunder—the same in principle in the two cases—which it may be of interest to point out. He says that he has probably mistaken some one else for M. Lacassagne not more than once in ten years, so that the chance of doing so on a given day may be taken to be one in 3,000. As he has actually met him perhaps once in every two years, the chance of meeting him on a given day may be put at one in 700. "Consequently," says M. Richet, "the probability that this day shall coincide with that on which I thought I saw him is one in 2,100,000" (*i. e.*, 700x3,000). As if it were a bit more improbable that he should see him on a day on which he had mistaken somebody else for him than on any other day! In reality, one in 2,100,000 would be the probability of both mistakenly thinking he saw him and actually seeing him on a day previously fixed upon independently by some third person. Such ignorance of the theory of probability as this article discloses can only be paralleled by M. Richet's former article on the same subject, which appeared some five years ago in the *Revue Philosophique*, and which he says appears to him to have now become "à peu près classique."

It is far from being the case that all of M. Richet's experiments are open to such elementary objections as the ones which we have singled out. Some of them have the appearance of being sufficiently "irreproachable," to use his favorite word. But the things which the promoters of psychical research ask us to believe *in are so extraordinary, and so contrary to all* sane experience hitherto, that it is absolutely indispensable that whoever describes them to us should be totally free from the erroneous ways of thinking which are common to the vulgar. There is plenty of irresponsible testimony in favor of supernaturalism in existence already, and the only reason that the Society for Psychical Research has gained the ear of a wider audience is, that its experimental work has been conducted after the fashion of scientific work of the best kind, and that it has been commented upon by persons

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of thoroughly trained mental powers. The most that can be said for M. Richet's additions to their labors is, that they do not suffice to disprove the existence of subtler forms of force than are now known to exist. His article is in striking contrast to the two admirable papers which the late Edmund Gurney contributed to the same number of the Proceedings.

THE RELATIONS OF FRANCE AND ITALY.

PARIS, September 7, 1888.

THERE is a difficulty between France and Italy, which has been brought to a climax by the question of the Capitulations at Massowah in the Red Sea. But in order better to understand how a technical discussion on the question of the Capitulations can have assumed such vast proportions, it is well to recall the origin of the present misunderstanding between the two countries.

It is well known that before the war of 1870 the Imperial Government of Napoleon had concluded with Italy the so-called September convention. Napoleon III., who had done so much for the liberation of Italy, and who, by his neutral and expectant policy, afterwards allowed the work of unification, had never dared to give Rome as a capital to the new kingdom. Victor Emmanuel remained in Florence, biding his time. He had feelings of great gratitude towards France; he respected the September convention. The events of 1870 changed the situation; France withdrew her troops, and the Italian armies entered Rome, which has ever since remained the capital of Italy.

The Republican Government of France was not disposed to complain of the violation of a treaty signed by Napoleon III. Though it had not yet taken an anti-clerical color, though Gambetta had not yet said, "Le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi," the Republic did not feel called upon to defend the temporal power of the Pope. Though the Chamber at Versailles contained many influential members attached to the Catholic cause, no protest was made against the action of the Italian Government; the accomplished facts were accepted, and the Duke Decazes entered into amicable relations with the Quirinal as well as with the Vatican. The Duc de Broglie, who is one of the leaders of the Catholic party in France, did the same, and no serious difficulty arose between the two countries during the days of the Conservative Republic and of the Presidency of Marshal MacMahon.

The relations of France and Italy remained so good that some political schemers revived at times the old dream of an alliance of the Latin races, of France, Italy, and Spain. Such was not the dream of the most important Italian statesmen. The first among them who, with his usual frankness, expressed a preference for the alliance of Italy with the German Powers, especially with Prussia, was Minghetti. This idea soon entered into the Italian mind. Though at times there was a contrary movement, though *Italia irredenta* threatened Austria, it may be said that as soon as Prince Bismarck succeeded in forming a close alliance between the two German empires, it became the object and ambition of Italy to enter into this alliance.

Let us go back to the time of the Treaty of Berlin. Count Corti represented Italy at the green table of the Congress. One evening he dined, not with Prince Bismarck, but with one of his trusty subordinates, who said to Count Corti: "We are trying to give satisfaction to everybody. Austria, your ancient enemy, and now your friend, will receive ample satisfaction; we think it very just that Italy should have some compensation. The Prince Chancellor is of this mind; what should you think of Tunis?" Upon this, Count Corti jumped to his feet and said: "Is the Prince Chancellor so determined to have us go to war with France?" This outburst put an end to the conversation. "If you take it in that way, let us speak no more of it." Tunis, which had been refused in this manner by Count Corti, was offered afterwards to France, and France seized the first opportunity to take it.

Tunis became from that moment the apple of discord between France and Italy. Everything else was forgotten—Magenta, Solferino, became empty words; "the equilibrium in the Mediterranean" replaced them. The Italian press represented Tunis and Bizerta as the new Carthage which threatened Rome. Count Corti became the victim of the rising opposition to France; as soon as Crispi came into power, he dismissed him in the most brutal manner, though Corti had served his country honorably for so many years. Crispi is the true representative of a new policy: he has nothing in common with the statesmen of the old school of Cavour; he is not a man of the North, of Piedmont, even of Tuscany; he has the fiery temper of a Sicilian. He was for a long time a lawyer in Palermo; as a true Sicilian, he looks on the African shore with feelings of envy. He would gladly say, "Delenda est Carthago."

The question of Massowah has embittered him even more than he was already. It seemed at first that nothing was easier for Italy than to take possession of some point on the Red Sea, and to secure a post of observation on what is now the high road of commerce between Asia and Europe. At the time when England tried to take possession of Khartum and to save Gordon, Italy, uninvited by her, volunteered to join her on the Upper Nile. These projects were knocked on the head by the death of Gordon and by the withdrawal of the English troops from the Upper Nile. Italy has ever since remained on her rock of Massowah, fighting unsuccessfully at times against the Negus of Abyssinia; her garrisons have been decimated by disease; she has spent millions of lire without any profit on a barren land, and cannot see the end of her sacrifices. Discontented with fate and with herself, she has become discontented with France; this question of the Capitulations at Massowah seemed to her "the unkindest cut of all."

There are, I am informed, two Frenchmen only at Massowah; there are also forty Greeks, who, in the absence of a Greek Consul, are placed under the protection of the French Consul—for we had a Consul at Massowah, though we hardly knew it, and it is rather unfortunate that we did have one, for, as the Greeks insisted upon keeping the privileges of the Capitulations, the French Consul was bound to extend these privileges to them, and the French Government was bound to stand by its Consul and by the Capitulations. And so arose a question which might have remained academic if the two governments had been amicably disposed, but which rapidly became an important political question, as Signor Crispi found in it an opportunity for a hostile demonstration against France.

All those who have read the notes of Crispi on this question of the Capitulations of Massowah must acknowledge that they were not conceived in the ordinary style of diplomatic documents; they were aggressive and almost insulting. I was so much moved by their tone that I asked one of my old Italian friends if Crispi was, in this circumstance, obeying his own personal feelings only, or was really representing the sentiments of the Italian people. My friend was candid enough to tell me that Crispi could not have spoken differently; that not only he had public opinion with him, but that he was pushed on by public opinion, and could not resist it. He added that Italy was extremely angry with us; that, after we had taken the immense territory of Tunis, Italy raised no serious difficulty about the Capitulations in Tunisia, though there were as many as a thousand Italians living in Tunis; that France ought to have given every facility to the Italian Government at Massowah, instead of increasing her great difficulties. The press of the peninsula had become all the more bitter against the French Government the more these difficulties at Massowah wounded the pride of the Italian nation; and things had come to that pass that if Crispi had not spoken very loudly, he could not have remained in power.

This was said to me at the time when Crispi was on his way to Friedrichsruhe to confer with the Prince Chancellor of Germany. There was much uneasiness felt in France on the subject of this meeting, and it seemed to many that the Italian Premier had gone to his German ally to ask permission to begin the great struggle with France. These fears were exaggerated. Nobody knows exactly what was said at Friederichsruhe, but what we know for certain is, that the tripartite alliance or league concluded between Prussia, Austria, and Italy was essentially formed in the interest of peace, and it does not depend upon Italy to alter its defensive character and make it offensive. Of course, it is difficult at times to draw a precise line between an offensive and a defensive policy, but if it ever became the manifest interest of Prussia, the most powerful of the three allied Powers, to precipitate events, then such a question as that of the Capitulations would not be chosen as a pretext for the commencement of hostilities, since, on such a question, the great Powers are obliged to side technically with the nation that stands by the old treaties. The Porte has already come forward and taken sides against Italy. Russia, England, even Austria, cannot well oppose the doctrine set forth in the memoranda of the French Government.

It is to be hoped that the present difficulty will blow over. What remains, however, and what deserves attention, is the revival of the old feeling in Italy which used to be called misogallism. We can but deplore this. Let us not return to the old days when Gioberti wrote his "Rinnovamento," and judged France with so much injustice and severity; to the days when Leopardi could write these lines:

> "Taccio gli altri nemici e l'altre doglie,
> Ma non la Francia scelerata e nera,
> Per cui presso alle soglie
> Vide la Patria tua l'ultima sera."

France can threaten nobody; she has no intention of offending Italy; she could show by positive documents that the policy of Italy with regard to herself has changed, not only since 1870, but since 1866. Sadowa was the turning point. Italy remembered the old saying of Guicciardini, "Va dove si vince." I read in a despatch of Nigra's, written on the 11th of June, 1866, under Napoleon III., "The military aid of France is no longer desired in Italy." This is perfectly conceivable; we have always admired the proud "Italia farà da se" of Charles Albert; but can we forget that it was followed by Novara? Italy ought to reflect well before tracing the lines of a political programme which would include a systematic and definitive hostility to France. Neutrality would be, for her, the best and the safest policy.

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CORSICA AND SAVOY.

PARIS, September 5, 1888.

THE marriage of the Duke of Aosta and the Princess Maria-Letitia Napoleon, in view of the possibility of his surviving both his brother, King Humbert, and his nephew, the Prince of Naples, that fair youth of eighteen, shy and conscious, and in feeble health, may well prove to be to Prince Napoleon the consolation of his old age. His Imperial Highness has gauged well the possible advantages to be derived from this alliance by the family of the Bonapartes; his parental joy need not be diminished if, during the wedding ceremonies at Turin, he should witness a recrudescence of the popularity which attended him in that city after the Italian campaign of 1859, when "Viva Napoleone, il nostro liberatore!" flew from mouth to mouth. After feeling the void around him growing wider and wider, as the people receded from his personality, it will not be disagreeable to Prince Napoleon, by way of a change, to find himself made much of.

Although well-assorted unions between highnesses are viewed by European eyes as much as ever as guarantees for the hopes and aspirations of their partisans, the calculations in this instance are too flagrantly premature. As if to make them less evident, the marriage is represented as one of inclination. Princess Letitia, says a courtly press, declares her aversion to contracts of political interest, citing candidly enough the uncongeniality of her own parents as an example she should regret to imitate. While the plausibility of this statement is somewhat compromised by the twenty years' seniority of the bridegroom, and his unromantic kinship—being her mother's own brother—it may be said that the young Princess, spite of her austere education, could not have been forced into the marriage against her will. She has a dash of her great-uncle in her, and this element is doubtless responsible for the amicable relation that exists between her and her father. She *is* the only one of his family with whom he is in accord. A friend remarks that one day, after a pretty lively family altercation which ended in defeat for Prince Napoleon, he naïvely ejaculated: "Où donc a-t-elle pris cette tête-là?" A manifestation of her will is evident in a special condition of her marriage imposed by herself, viz., that she shall be at liberty to receive and to visit, as frequently as she desires, her brother Victor, to whom she is devoted.

In appearance Princess Letitia is a thorough Bonaparte. Tall and vigorous, with marvellous black eyes and hair, clear features set well in relief by an ivory-white complexion characteristic of the Bonapartes, she personifies that fine type of young Roman women so admired by artists. In her graceful bearing she recalls her grandmother, Queen Catherine of Würtemberg, the model wife and mother whose exquisite nature all have appreciated since her private correspondence has been published at Stuttgart. Being French, Princess Letitia received a French education at the College of the Nuns of the Adoration of the Sacred Heart at Turin. She speaks German, English, and Italian with great facility, and, like most modern young women, can "make up" a landscape palette. Above all, she is a fine musician; her voice, remarkable in quality, is well cultivated, and will charm the guests of the Palazzo della Cisterna as it has charmed the congregations of the chapel of the nuns, where she sang every Sunday. But instead of the elegant Parisienne as report has represented her, one will be nearer the truth if he fancy Princess Letitia Napoleon clad in a combination garb very little removed in cut and color from the dress of the Carmelites, in whose company she and her mother attended mass every morning. A fanciful legend has also made of her a kind of Diana Vernon, skimming on horseback over the rugged surroundings of Moncalieri—an extremely romantic note, but inexact. Few so-called girlish whims have been indulged, but simple tastes mildly enforced.

Altogether, the life at Moncalieri might have been for its gayety that of two châtelaines of the fourteenth century. The château is an ancient *rendez-vous-de-chasse* situated some sixteen miles from Turin. It has too much the look of barracks to be architecturally beautiful, but it stands in one of those Italian landscapes of which the eye never tires—a peaceful valley bathed by the River Po, the sky meeting a chain of the Alps. All the children of Victor Emmanuel have been brought up in this retreat. Clotilde, Humbert, Amadeus, Maria-Pia played in those vast halls hung with the life-size portraits of the ancestors of the House of Savoy, from Humbert of the white hands down to Charles Albert. When the eldest daughter of the *re galantuomo* left France, after the arrest of her husband in 1872, she was given Moncalieri, and there also her two sons would have been educated if it had not been decided that they should follow the political fortune of their father.

Princess Clotilde sent her children to Italy in the care of one of her ladies of honor in the year 1870, after the proclamation of the republic, and Prince Amadeus came to the frontier to receive them. This incident must remain a curious souvenir in the events of to-day; he was at that time a young man of twenty-five, newly married, and Princess Letitia a baby four years old. The personal reminiscences she left in Paris are therefore very shadowy, but the souvenirs presented of her mother, now Princess Clotilde, are ever-enduring. The always becoming attitude of the daughter of Victor Emmanuel, her dignified departure from the Palais Royal, her retirement at Moncalieri, throw a halo round her, elevating the character of the woman to that of a saint; in her case royalty has been paid the great compliment of being held secondary to virtues.

When this marriage was announced, the ladies of France loyal to the Napoleonic cause felt unwilling to let the occasion pass without a testimonial of their sympathy and fidelity. A subscription was started, and the Committee ordered the present—I was going to say from the Crown jewellers—the old house of Bapst & Falize, who, under a monarchical régime, would by right of succession have the handling of the Crown treasure. While the subscription was still open, a rather curious evolution in thought took place. The etiquette of ordinary beings offering wedding presents to royalty was questioned, as if the circumstance was without precedent since scions of reigning houses have taken to private life in exile. The long list of priceless knick-knacks inscribed under aristocratic and financial names that figured on the occasion of the marriage of the Princess Amélie d'Orléans cannot have been forgotten. It was not then thought that the donors who so satisfactorily indulged their vanity, were guilty of the crime of *lèse-majesté*. But the subscription for the Princess Letitia's gift revealed scruples hitherto overlooked. Some of the ladies—willing enough to untie their purse strings—questioned the decorum of the proceeding, and felt shy of contributing to the splendors of a royal corbeille. The rule of antique monarchy was recalled, when the King never received, nor even loaned, but always gave, to be true to his prestige.

No better example than Amadeus's short reign in Spain is needed to prove how disappointed the constituents of royalty can feel when the rôle of King is not followed to the letter. It was not so much for his love of pleasure that the young King was censured. The Spaniards reproached him with treating too lightly the dignity of his position, with wanting to act like a simple citizen who, embarrassed with a crown, places it under his arm. But Amadeus preferred not reigning to governing violently. Therefore, as he was neither loved nor feared, and in sympathy with none of the parties, he abdicated at the end of two years. After this political episode the Duke of Aosta retired to private life, and his services to his country are limited to the general inspectorship of the cavalry regiments, and playing proxy to his brother the King at all minor state ceremonies. His first wife left him three sons, and one of the largest fortunes in Italy.

It remains to be seen if, in the present union, France will find an advocate who will foster in Italy the realization of the Napoleonic dream—the brotherhood of the two countries; or if M. Thiers's prophetic words, that "Italy's gratitude to France will only last as long as her weakness," will hold good to the end.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

THE ISLAND OF CIRCE.

S. FELICE CIRCEO (Island of Circe), August 19, 1888.

YOUR correspondent "E. S." (*Nation*, No. 1205) points out the singularity of Greek history in the interruption of its chain of evidence during the period of Turkish subjection, and the contrast with Italy, where, as he intimates, every ruin and village has its record from the earliest Roman historical times down. In Greece, on the contrary, during the centuries between the decline of the Western Empire and the revival of Neo-Hellenism, there is no history of any importance except Byzantine; and Greece proper under the Byzantine rule is so completely unknown that the existence of the Parthenon was a discovery of modern times, and it has been possible to rediscover Byzantine colonies whose existence had never been suspected, on the ruins of the oldest Greek cities, and even to attribute to them a prehistoric origin—although we begin to find that there was scarcely an ancient site which was not occupied during the latter years of the Byzantine supremacy. This oblivion is not, however, due to the Turkish conquest and slavery, but goes further back, and probably began with the devastations and depopulation of the Slavic invasion and the consequent isolation of Greece proper, while the piracy and ravage of the Crusades and the conquests of Venice, actuated by the most venomous religious rancor, completed a prostration which the Turkish contest only continued. The original population was probably exterminated over the greater part of the actual Greek territory, and of course there was a complete break in tradition. This probably was the case as early as the thirteenth century; for the ruins on the site of Tiryns which Schliemann took for archaic (*i. e.*, Pelasgic), are in fact totally Byzantine, with bricks such as we find in the buildings of the twelfth and thirteenth century, and a mosaic floor of a barbarous kind which could only have been made in the lowest state of an art that came into existence in Greece in the first centuries of the Roman conquest. The Turks only came in with the conquest of Constantinople in the middle of the fifteenth century.

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But there is a curious parallel to this break in the Greek historical record in that which takes place in the Italian prehistoric, and which is not less interesting because, instead of written documents and the interruption of them, the only evidence we have is of stone, of which we have yet only partially read the meaning. The earliest traditions of Italian civilization run very closely with the evidence of the constructions which remain from its primitive stages, and we can now even trace the original Umbrian and his successor and colleague the Pelasgian down to the establishment of Umbro-Pelasgic domination in Italy, with a tolerable probability. Then comes the break I allude to, and the traditions so utterly disappear that there is nothing to show with definiteness when the Etruscans came in and the Pelasgi disappeared.

In a letter to the *Nation* from Rieti, I made some references to the documents of the stone age still remaining in that mountain district, which seems to have been the great field of the Pelasgic development in Italy, and of which the fullest agglomeration does not coincide, as was for a long time supposed, with the Etruscan imperial limits, but with the Latin, as we see them defined in the alliances and movements of the Latin tribes in their wars with Rome, and especially in the great league whose defeat settled the question of Roman supremacy. The centre of this league was Sulmo (now Solmona), a city in the very heart of the Abruzzi, and equally removed from the domination of the Etruscan on one side and the Greek on the other. These Latin tribes emerge from the historical and traditional void into which the Pelasgi have gone; of the beginnings of the one and the end of the other we are equally ignorant. But the constructions and other prehistoric documents (of which, and of the way to read which, we are, thanks to the intelligent system of research adopted by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, every day learning more), taken in connection with the indications of tradition in the early Greek and Latin writers, show, as the probable solution of the problem, that the mysterious race which founded Italian civilization and left behind it 400 walled cities in central and southern Italy, with not even the shadow of its name, was simply the great Italic stock to which belonged the mass of the populations who, in the epoch of the earliest classical record—*circa* 700-600 B. C.—occupied the country between Etruria and Magna Grecia; and that, though they had been driven down from the north by the Etruscans, and from the south by the Hellenes, they had, in this great natural fortress, maintained their independence and a certain confederation.

I may have, in other communications to the *Nation*, called attention to the fact that whenever, in the earliest classical tradition, Zeus is called in question, it is as the type of Pelasgic civilization; and I am inclined to think that the tradition of the Saturnian epoch in Italy and its seven great cities refers to the same movement, Saturn and Zeus being to a certain extent bound together—the Saturnian cities being the communities of the golden age of Italy to which succeeds the empire of Jupiter (Zeus Pater), who remains the supreme god of the Pelasgic stock in Greece as in Italy, and whose presence in early local tradition is always marked, so far as my own researches go, at least, by the presence of the ruins known as Pelasgic or Cyclopean. It is another allied fact that the greatest part and the finest examples of those remains occur in the provinces once held by the Latin league. They give way to progress in many places, and a later form of construction occurs which might be called Latin, as it is only found in a distinctive state in some of the Latin cities, as at Antium, and, as I mentioned, at Reate, and, across the plain at one edge of which I am writing, at Terracina, the ancient Anxur.

But a more renowned city in the mythical days was Circeum, the city of Circe, to which Ulysses comes in his wanderings, though he evidently had only the vaguest traditions of the country, and was not aware that there was a city. It was then on an island, and the geological record, taken in connection with the traditional, is one of the most interesting combinations of myth and science I know of. The city is noticed as existing during the wars of Rome with the Latin tribes, and even in the social wars; but, except some ruins of imperial character, I have been able to find nothing of the Roman epoch. Taking Circeum as a part of the sub-Latin district in which come also the adjoining Antium and Anxur, one may say that it marks the break between the Pelasgic and Latin in the most emphatic manner; for while at the latter places the Latin masonry is unmistakable, in the former there is nothing which tells of an intermediate state between the Pelasgic and the Roman. Tradition is equally silent as to this period, for we only hear of Italy as known to the Greeks again in the early days of Rome, when the Corinthian vase-painters came to Tarquinia. It may be supposed that there was no history because there were no historians; but why tradition should be so completely silent, is more difficult to explain. I am not going to attempt to explain it here. Circeum is of itself a sufficiently interesting study.

That the island of Circe was at one time an island in fact, is not left to the assertion of Homeric tradition, for the examination of one of the caves on the coast shows that at one time the present coast line was at least thirty feet lower than it is now; and as the plain which connects the mountain with the mainland is largely occupied by the Pontine marshes, which are scarcely above the sea-level, a depression of the district to the distance of little more than half that would make it an island again. The remains of the Pelasgic city are most interesting and important, though so unknown that it has been a long time in dispute where Circeum stood. The modern village of S. Felice Circeo stands on an angle of the old *enceinte;* and on three sides of the present constructions the foundations of the houses which form the exterior defence (as in all the poorer mediæval towns) are based on the original Pelasgic wall, of which, in some parts, as much as six feet in height remains. It is of the rudest type, but is unmistakable. From this level plateau, about 400 feet above the sea, the land rises gently towards the mountain which overhangs it, and the wall may be traced following the elevation until it meets a precipice, on the top of which, at an elevation of 1,000 feet, is the plateau where the citadel is built. It is the usual plan on which the Pelasgic cities were built, but it is rare that they extend over such an amount of land as here. The slope lies exposed to the east, and is in great part, even in its present neglected condition, of remarkable fertility, and so well adapted to fruit culture that in the Middle Ages it was renowned for the variety and quality of its fruits. Of these we now find only the grape, which grows anywhere in Italy; a pear which grows without culture; blackberries, and the modern tomato, the culture of which is the main resource of a miserable and fever-stricken population. Yet the circuit of the ancient walls must be above two miles; and when one looks at the massive work that could only be the result of a highly organized and numerous population, and at the extent of the ancient city, one of so many, it is impossible not to draw the conclusion that ancient Italy was more densely populated than we have conceived.

I have said that the foundations of the ancient walls on which the present village is built are of the rudest form of Pelasgic, or what is generally known as Cyclopean—*i. e.*, of stone unworked in any way; and this is the case with most of the curtain which connected the lower with the upper town or citadel. But the latter is of the most elaborate and perfect polygonal masonry, and a gate still remaining is very similar to the little gate at Mykenæ. A portion of the wall still stands nearly twenty feet high. This town must date far back of the Homeric traditions, and belongs to the period when Æa was an island and the Tyrrhenian sea rolled where now are the Pontine marshes. But in the days of the early conquests of Rome under Tarquin—perhaps before—the Pometian plains were among the most coveted objects of Roman desire, and the principal source of the Roman grain supply. They are never spoken of as the Pometian (Pontine) marshes, and they were fought over and taken and retaken generation after generation; and the details of the operations show that even if there was such a feature as marsh in the Pometian district, it was of slight importance, and did not prevent Pometium from being one of the strongest and wealthiest cities of Latium, so that when Tarquinius Superbus captured it he made a booty of 4,000 talents of gold and silver. The plain is now so near the level of the sea that the drainage of the marshes is practically impossible, and the malaria makes every year new ravages in the diminishing towns around them.

The record, then, is of a redemption from the sea and a resumption going on and perhaps not yet complete, with a corresponding fluctuation of population, through which a city that must have numbered its people by many thousands, is reduced to a corner of its old area and a small fraction of what it once held. And the evidence is, that all over this part of Italy—from Tuscany down to Campania at least—the same diminution has been going on since the Roman Empire. The Pontine plains are said once to have held twenty-three cities where now only miserable fever-stricken villages, half-a-dozen or so, and these diminishing in population, are to be found. Of these old cities Circeum must have been one of the most important; Tarquin is said to have put his own son over it, and the simple fact that its fortifications are not renewed in masonry of a later time is an indication that it was not treated as many of the Latin cities were, for it figures in the wars of Sylla and Marius, and then probably met its destruction. Of the great Pometium we know nothing—not even its site; but of the other cities only Cora seems to have rivalled this in extent and the importance of its works. The gateway is of the most massive workmanship, and it is not at all uncommon to find blocks of stone in the walls ten feet long, and the wall itself was ten feet thick. But the gateway—the only one I could discover—is only five feet wide, and of the same width is all that remains of the main street.

I should not forget to mention that one feature of the ruins of Circeum is a port of which I do not remember any similar construction. It was guarded by two towers not connected with the city in any way that I can discover. There is a basin, now high and dry, opposite them, and this has been made use of in the imperial times, so that it is now impossible to investigate its original character; but it was necessary to the site, as the shore is rocky

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and did not permit the drawing up of the ships on the strand, as was the custom in the Homeric age, and still is with craft of the dimensions of those which then ruled the seas.

What may be the origin of the myth of the magic of Circe it is hardly possible even to conjecture, yet I hold that in all cases there is some root for the old superstitions. I can even fancy that in a different condition of the climate, as when the rainfall was much greater than now, as it must have been anciently, the extreme dryness which is now the ruin of Circeum (the summer being quite rainless) might have been a delightful perpetual summer, enchanting to all who entered into its influence, and that an enervating sense of the luxury of existence might have overcome the mariner who fell on these shores. As Reinach has shown that a rational basis for the myth of the lotophagi is to be found in the date fruit, we may conjecture that a similar condition of the Circean existence was the basis of the witchery of Æa.

To those interested in the archæology of the Roman Empire, there is nothing of importance at Circeum itself; but at the other end of the long mountain which was the island of Æa, there is the *piscina* of Lucullus in tolerable preservation and still one of the most important fisheries on the Italian coast. The mediæval town was absolutely destroyed during the wars between Rome and Naples, and rebuilt entirely in the middle of the sixteenth century, so that, except the foundations of the Pelasgic walls, there is nothing older than 1550, and the village is one of the least picturesque one can see in all Italy. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE MORAL ISSUE IN TARIFF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the *Nation* of the 13th, treating tariff reform as a moral issue, is timely and to the point. It has thus far been treated by the press generally in a purely selfish way. The argument *ad captandum* has been too much employed, and the appeal to personal interests has savored too much of the Pennsylvania manner of presenting the advantages of so-called protection. In a political campaign where there is real necessity of presenting truth in some tentative form to those who have not been "students of maxims," and among a people who have been taught to despise the political philosopher as a dreamer or theorist, and look to some successful but not unlikely illiterate "practical man" as the fount of knowledge, there may exist good cause for this manner of disregarding the ethics involved; and yet the very general opinion of those who have been working for commercial freedom for years, is to the effect that more success has accompanied an appeal to the moral nature of those interested in the question than any other form of argument. It has been the great secret of Mr. Hurd's addresses. His eloquence is never so convincing as when, abandoning particulars and statistics, he urges the injustice and moral turpitude of the system of spoliation whose misnomer is protection. The theme of his every discourse is Liberty, and he is very free to admit that his greatest success in making tariff-reformers is when speaking on that line. Prof. Perry has for years taught free trade as a social duty, and has ever sought to impress upon the minds of his classes the morality, or want of it, involved in any system of taxation which unjustly deprives one of the full fruits of his labor.

The tariff, if it does anything, works an unnatural distribution. This means an unnatural interference in personal rights, and whatever touches such rights has no right to plead exemption from moral judgments.

Chas. E. Wheeler.

Toledo, O., September 15, 1888.

THE PHILANTHROPY OF PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: How hard it is to get you to put in your paper one word for Protection, I know from the talk of some persons who have always shrunk from even asking you for fair treatment; but Protection is a religion, and, like other religions, aims to benefit not one country (still less one class), but all mankind. You may fail to see the motive that actuates the true protectionist (for there are protectionists falsely so called); but beware how you refuse a hearing to a man whose heart is in the cause.

For just see what has been done by the United States for the world through our efforts. By excluding from other countries our natural products, we have promoted the prosperity of those countries. Details are not to be expected in a newspaper communication; nor, in fact, are they necessary. You have but to open your cyclopædias or geographies or gazetteers to see what marvellous changes have taken place in South America, in Australia, in New Zealand, in Africa, even in Europe. Are you so blinded by your theories and maxims as not to see that it is the *fact* of Protection that has wrought these changes? Just imagine where England would be if the blighting influence of free trade had not been counteracted and even, in some measure, overborne by our exertions in her behalf. It is time to cease calling protectionists selfish. Courageously, cheerfully, exultantly have we devoted our incomes and our earnings to this cause. The world has witnessed no nobler spectacle than that of millions of hard-working men and women putting away from themselves a large share of their substance in furtherance of this sacred purpose. Were we only true to the duty imposed on us, did we but cherish in our hearts this trust which it is ours to maintain, then would we take measures to exclude our productions from foreign countries more rigorously than now. This would diversify their industries. They could make for themselves what they get from us, and quit making what they send us. England would blossom like a garden; and the English manufacturers would have a home-market, a sale for their output at their own doors. If protection benefits us, must it not likewise benefit them? It is the law of action and reaction in the moral world. Strange that a truth so simple, an obvious deduction from a law of nature, should have been overlooked even by protectionists themselves. Andrew Ingraham.

New Bedford, Mass., September 13, 1888.

PROTECTION AND STRIKES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Our protectionists are, indeed, most remarkable beings. The majority of them have perhaps never fully realized how clever they are, and how brilliant is the discovery the world owes to them. It is an infallible system for protecting labor against the injustice of our social organization, which continually threatens the laborer with starvation wages, that calls for our gratitude. Such a system, brought to perfection, would be the final solution of the social question. Its logical outcome is, that if taxation be increased by means of a prohibitory tariff tending to the exclusion of all foreign products, then pauperism will at once disappear, strikes and boycotts be relegated to a dreary past, peace and harmony prevail between laborer and employer; the laborer will have all the work wanted, never lose a day by hard times, nor suffer a reduction of wages; his wife, no longer his competitor, will become his companion and helpmeet, and his children, happily innocent of the fact that an existence has to be struggled for, will flourish within the sacred precincts of a true home.

What a fine prospect to the protected laborer! What a pity that such a theory should be contradicted by stubborn facts! How close to this ideal we approached under the régime of protection will appear from a consideration of the following statistics, compiled from the third annual report of the Commissioner of Labor on "Strikes and Lockouts": Within the six years 1880-1886, in twenty-eight enumerated industries, there were concerned in strikes and lockouts 1,484,026 laborers, with a loss to employers and employees of $94,136,254. Five protected industries alone, viz., boots and shoes, clothing, metals and metallic works, mining, cotton and woollen goods, contribute the following figures to the total: Laborers participating in strikes and lockouts, 715,406, *i. e.*, about 50 per cent. of the total; loss to employers and employees, $49,427,143, more than 50 per cent. This figure does not include the assistance afforded to the striking laborers in these five industries, which amounted to $1,939,375, and represents so much loss and privation to other wage-earners. Out of 6,038 strikes in these five industries, 5,247, or 87 per cent., arose from the question of wages. One cannot estimate the tears, the distress, the starvation, the disturbance of all our industries under the régime of protection implied by these few figures. What a salvation to the laborer is protection! Louis Ka.

September 28, 1888.

THE FORGED ASIATIC TERRACOTTAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer of "Archæologists vs. Experts," in the *Nation* of August 23, states that there are still a number of authorities eager to maintain the authenticity of the Cymæan, Ephesian, etc., terracotta groups. This is not quite the case. There actually exists—setting aside the dealers and the non-professional archæologists—but *one* authority in favor of these celebrated counterfeits; that authority is M. Froehner, who wrote the letter to the *Athenæum* alluded to in your article. I take the opportunity to add that M. Kekulé, the well-known professor of archæology in Bonn, quite recently wrote to me that he had never believed in the authenticity of *any* so-called Asiatic group. From a purely scientific point of view, the question must be considered as solved. Who are the forgers? That is quite another problem, which offers but a slight interest for science.

Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.

Château de St.-Germain-en-Laye, Sept. 4, 1888.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their series of "Questions of the Day" 'The Relation of the Tariff to Wages: A Short and Simple Catechism,' by David A. Wells; 'The Tariff and its

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Evils,' by John H. Allen; and 'American Prisons in the Tenth U. S. Census,' by Frederick A. Wines. They further announce 'Business,' by James Platt, after the 75th English edition; 'Glimpses of the Future,' by David G. Croly; and a rhymed version of the first six books of the 'Aeneid,' by Henry Hamilton.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'The Poetic and Prose Works of John G. Whittier,' in seven volumes, with two etched and three engraved portraits, the poems having been rearranged, classified, and revised by the author, with notes and an appendix consisting of poems heretofore omitted by Mr. Whittier from the successive general collections of his verse; a new biographical series of "American Religious Leaders," as, Jonathan Edwards (by Prof. A. V. G. Allen), Charles Hodge (by President Patton of Princeton), Francis Wayland (by Prof. J. S. Murray), Archbishop Hughes (by John G. Shea), Theodore Parker (by John Fiske), etc.; 'Indiana: a Redemption from Slavery,' by J. P. Dunn, jr., and 'Ohio,' by Rufus King (in the "American Commonwealths" series); 'The Critical Period of American History, 1783-1789,' by John Fiske; 'Young Sir Harry Vane,' by Prof. James K. Hosmer; 'History of the Old South Church, Boston,' by Hamilton A. Hill, in two volumes, illustrated; 'Colonial Times on Buzzard's Bay,' by W. R. Bliss; 'History of Woodstock, Vermont,' by Henry S. Dana; 'The Life of Delia Bacon,' author of the Baconian theory of Shakspere, by her nephew, Theodore Bacon; 'Ancient Rome in the Light of Recent Discoveries,' by Prof. Rodolfo Lanciani, illustrated; 'The Soul of the Far East,' by Percival Lowell; the first Supplement to 'Poole's Index,' January 1, 1882-1887, by W. F. Poole and W. I. Fletcher; 'Flowers and Fruit,' selections from the writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe; 'After Noontide,' selections by Margaret E. White; 'Books and Men,' essays by Agnes Repplier; 'On Horseback, and Mexican Notes,' by Charles Dudley Warner; Björnson's drama, 'Sigurd Slembe,' translated by Wm. M. Payne; Dante's 'Divina Commedia,' metrically translated by John Augustine Wilstach, in two volumes; a holiday edition of Longfellow's 'Courtship of Miles Standish,' with illustrations by Boughton, Merrill, and others; vols. 9 and 10, 'Literary Curiosities' and 'Topography,' in Mr. G. Laurence Gomme's edition of the *Gentleman's Magazine Library;* 'Poetry, Comedy, and Duty,' by Prof. C. C. Everett; 'The Law of Equivalents, in its relations to Political and Social Ethics,' by Edward Payson; 'Realistic Idealism in Philosophy Itself,' by Nathaniel Holmes; 'The Diatessaron of Tatian,' translated from the Arabic by Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr.; a new edition of Andrews and Stoddard's 'Latin Grammar,' by Prof. Henry Preble; and the following fiction—'The Despot of Broomsedge Cove,' by Charles Egbert Craddock; 'The Guardians'; 'The McVeys,' by Joseph Kirkland; 'Molly Bishop's Family,' by Catherine Owen; 'The Cheezles,' by Lucy Gibbons Morse; 'The Peckster Professorship,' by J. P. Quincy; and 'Our Phil, and Other Stories,' by Katharine Floyd Dana.

Ginn & Co. announce 'The Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry,' by Prof. John D. Runkle. They have also in press a new edition of Lanman's Sanskrit Reader, with the long-delayed notes (which will also be issued by themselves), together with 'The Voices of Children,' a theoretical and practical guide for the training of them, by W. H. Leib.

W. R. Jenkins will publish here Zola's new novel, 'Le Rêve,' vouched for as "suitable for everybody to read," simultaneously with its coming out in Paris; also, an *édition de luxe*, in French, of Hugo's 'Notre Dame de Paris,' with illustrations, in two volumes, printed at the University Press, Cambridge, Mass. A new series of "Classiques Françaises" will be introduced by several of Molière's and Corneille's plays edited with notes by Prof. Schele de Vere.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have nearly ready 'Sermons from Plymouth Pulpit,' by Henry Ward Beecher, in four volumes; and 'Spirit and Life,' sermons by the Rev. Amory H. Bradford; and in preparation, 'The Human Mystery in Hamlet,' by Martin W. Cook.

The next volume in Freeman's series of "Historic Towns" will be Mr. Montagu Burrows's 'Cinque-Ports.' It will be published both in London and New York by Longmans, Green & Co.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' (New York: H. V. and H. W. Poor) has reached its majority, the new issue for the current date being the twenty-first in a series whose value it would be superfluous to insist upon. Among the novel features in the contents is the statement of the new railroad construction of 1886-87-88, furnished by the *Engineering News*, together with a colored map of the United States in which the extensive additions to our ever-spreading system are made strikingly manifest to the eye. The miles of line laid in 1887 (12,668) considerably exceeded those of 1882, the most active year previously on record. Kansas was the scene of one-sixth of this construction, and the centre of the greater part. There are several maps of States in groups, exhibiting railroad systems.

Hardly any volume of the series of Browning's Poetical Works in the new edition carefully looked after by the author (Macmillan) is more characteristic than the fifth. It embraces the dramatic romances and the "Christmas-Eve and Easter-Day." Among the former, such poems of passion as "The Glove," "In a Gondola," and "The Statue and the Bust," are mingled with the "Incident of the French Camp," "Waring," "The Pied Piper of Hamlin," etc. From this collection the poet could be as surely inferred as, by the anatomist, the extinct animal from its solitary fossil member.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have, in connection with Douglas of Edinburgh, published a handsome third edition of Sir G. W. Dasent's 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' a work which has been for thirty years before the public. The appendix is made up of so-called "Ananzi [or Spider] Stories" of the West Indies, in which various affinities with Aryan folk-lore are discernible. One of them, which has a parallel in the Norse, can be matched also in the second "Uncle Remus" series.

The same publishers send us their two promised editions of the President's tariff message of December last—one of the few messages that have had the distinction of passing out of the category of public documents into literature, and becoming salable. That illustrated by Mr. Nast is not so effective as it would be if the cartoons had been based upon the message rather than upon the subject of protection. Mr. R. R. Bowker, on the other hand, has much enhanced the weight of the message by his "annotations," in which he has made good use of past utterances of Republican Presidents, commissions, and platforms; and of Secretary Fairchild's Report. His pamphlet forms No. 48 of the "Questions of the Day" series.

Miss Frances E. Willard's 'Woman in the Pulpit' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.) is a Scriptural argument in favor of the proposition implied in the title. Perhaps it would be more correctly described as a refutation of Scriptural argument against the ordaining and preaching of women. The publishers say that "whatever views one may hold as to the merits of the case, he will find much material for reflection" in this volume. Our own reflection is, that it is calculated to impeach all appeals to the Bible for the determination not only of similar questions, but of any question. Miss Willard gets over certain obstacles in her way by attacking "literal exegesis," and offering in its place what she calls "reasonable exegesis"; that is, she assumes the right to make any text literal or figurative as she pleases. This she calls "playing fast and loose," in the case of her adversaries, who have exercised the same privilege of determining what are and what are not "proof texts." She thinks that exegesis will never be put on a right basis till women have an equal share in it with men. Perhaps not, but her present contribution does not lead us to expect so much as she does from this coöperation. However, she is able to quote several divines on her side on the main question.

The fifth volume of the *Forum* is a stout volume of 700 pages. Its index imperfectly reveals the contents for want of being analytic. We make out that the leading topics of discussion, by writers of greater or less prominence, have been the reduction of the surplus, protection, the Southern question, legislative control of intemperance and of railroads, copyright, the public schools, municipal reform, Romanism, etc. Foreign topics are not numerous—"Scotland of To-day," by Prof. John Stuart Blackie, "Irish Landlordism," by Michael Davitt, and Bishop Chatard's "Temporal Power and the Papacy" being the solitary examples, unless we include Mr. Higginson's "English and American Manners."

The newly issued annual report of the Commissioner of Pensions for the current year is remarkable for a map of the United States, showing (besides other data) the population of each in 1860, the number of volunteers and bounty men, and the number of pensioners. The total of these last on July 1, 1888, for the whole country was 452,557—our standing army. New York's share is almost exactly one-tenth of this number; Ohio and Pennsylvania fall but little behind, and are nearly equal to each other. Indiana, Illinois, and Massachusetts follow in order. The once slaveholding States, loyal and disloyal, foot up one-seventh (68,178), Missouri leading off with 18,955, only some 200 less than her neighbor and former victim, Kansas.

The first number of the third volume of the Papers of the American Historical Association (G. P. Putnam's Sons) contains a report of the proceedings of the Association at Boston and Cambridge in May of last year. The most permanently valuable papers are those by Mr. Justin Winsor on the MS. sources of American history in the conspicuous collections extant, and by Mr. A. B. Hart on the biography of a river and harbor bill. In connection with Dr. H. B. Adams's memorial sketch of Leopold von Ranke, the writer prints for the first time a contribution towards a bibliography of the great historian. Prof. C. W. Bennett tells of the nature and extent of the Ranke library secured for Syracuse University. Of curious interest is Mr. H. C. Lea's communicated extract from the 'Analecta Franciscana,' being a letter from Hispaniola by a missionary of that order in the year 1500, when "a certain admiral, captain, and chief placed there, ill-treating those new men, taking their goods and wives, and capturing their virgin daughters, was sent to Spain in chains and replaced by another." There is a noticeably large proportion of foreign topics in the Proceedings, and a noticeable absence of

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American papers on the period subsequent to the Revolution.

Without a prospectus or announcement of any kind, the first number of *University Studies* has been published by the University of Nebraska at Lincoln (July, 1888). It is an excellent beginning. The first paper is "On the Transparency of the Ether," by D. B. Brace; the second, "On the Propriety of Retaining the Eighth Verb-Class in Sanskrit," by A. H. Edgren. The last, by J. A. Fontaine, "On the History of the Auxiliary Verbs in the Romance Languages," is a very learned and serious piece of work, that will well repay study.

Young Hearts is the fresh title selected for a new juvenile monthly launched this month in this city (62 Cedar St.). Typographically, it has been conceived with good judgment.

Vacation being over, the Syracuse *Academy* reappears, in its September issue. Mr. Briggs's amusing paper on "The Harvard Admission Examination in English" is the most noteworthy. The editor awards high praise to President Eliot's paper in the August *Atlantic* on the shortening of school programmes, as "the most important educational document of the year."

The late Michael Heilprin has an affectionate tribute paid to him by the Rev. J. W. Chadwick in the September number of the Boston *Unitarian Review*. The notice contains not a few particulars which we think have not seen the light in other outlines of the life of that lamented scholar.

The September *Portfolio* (Macmillan) gives a large measure of its space to living English artists—at one extreme of years, to James Clarke Hook; at another, to the very promising young sculptor, Harry Bates, several of whose pieces are reproduced with fidelity. Mr. Hamerton gives us his Fourth Conversation on Book Illustration, which (under the title "Technical Necessities") takes a wide range. We learn what "Tone" is in illustration, and how wood-engravings surpass pen-and-ink drawings in this regard; what sort of treatment is appropriate for poetry, what for novels, books of travel, scientific works, etc. Here are some of the dicta—by the "Artist" of the talkers: "The absolutely perfect illustration of a poem in which landscape was mentioned, would be in water-color, with the inconvenience that there could only be a single copy"; by the "Critic": "Mezzotint, which is useless for scientific purposes, is excellent in those books which belong to the category of the Fine Arts"; by the same: "It is in the highest degree remarkable that at a time when etching had fallen into almost complete disrepute as a fine art, it was resorted to by the illustrators of novels merely for the facility of its line and the fidelity with which the line could be printed after the biting."

From the International News Co. we have late issues of *Paris Illustré*, in French, with the announcement that early in October an English edition will begin to appear simultaneously with the French. By reason of its first-rate color-prints, this weekly holds an exceptional position among journals of its class.

It is with not a little surprise that we see America supplying France with dances; but so it is. M. J. Lagus, professor of dancing at Pau, has just put forth a 'Nouveau Guide des Danses françaises et américaines' (Paris: Sauvaitre; New York: Brentano), in which we find explained and exemplified a "Nouveau quadrille américain" and the "boston-valse." In describing the latter, M. Lagus declares that "il est difficile d'arriver à être excellent bostonneur. . . . Un peu de constance et beaucoup de pratique suffiront pour imiter les Américains, qui exécutent cette danse avec une souplesse, une élégance et une grâce vraiment prodigieuses."

'Souvenirs d'un Homme de Lettres' is the title of the sequel of M. Alphonse Daudet's 'Trente Ans de Paris' to be published shortly in French, illustrated in the fashion which has made the Tartarin books doubly delightful.

In a recent mention of Ginn & Co.'s school edition of Franklin's Autobiography, we mistakenly implied that no notice was taken of his anti-slavery endeavors in his latter years. We still think, however, that they did not receive due prominence at the hands of the editor.

—The new circular of the Selden Society again draws attention to the excellent objects which that body has in hand, viz.: (1.) The printing of manuscripts and of new editions and translations of books having an important bearing on English legal history; (2.) The collection of materials for dictionaries of Anglo-French and Law Terms; (3.) The collection of materials for a history of English law. The students of our early law know well the need of these things. The Society has not yet a large membership. Although small, it is one which embodies much learning and distinction, as the circular sufficiently indicates. Of course the work of the Society must depend upon the number of its members, whose annual fees are its sole means of support. Nothing is paid by the Society for salaries, and no liability is incurred by joining it, beyond the annual subscription. Any person whatever may become a member by sending this annual subscription of one guinea, or $5.18 (which falls due on January first of each year), to the General Secretary, Prof. J. B. Thayer of the Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Mass., or to any of the local secretaries. The local secretary for New York is Mr. Alexander Tison, 40 Wall Street. The circular may be had of the same persons. All lawyers may well count it as a debt to their profession to become members of the Selden Society. It makes its appeal also to historical and philological students, and indeed to all lovers of good learning.

—Of the first volume of the Society's publications, 'Select Pleas of the Crown—A. D. 1200–1225,' selected and translated by F. W. Maitland, we spoke in the *Nation* of May 31 last. The second volume will contain selections made by the same accomplished hand from the earliest Manorial Rolls extant, viz., those of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Of the extremely valuable and interesting details which must lie buried in these unpublished records of local country life and manners, as well as of early custom and law, one may get some impression from the Quo Warranto cases of the time of Edward III., about A. D. 1330, in Keilwey's Reports, where the lords of certain manors were called on to show the extent and kind of jurisdiction which they claimed, and by what right they claimed it. See especially case 14, on page 141, b. In Pike's 'History of Crime,' volume 1, pp. 450, 451, and in the second volume of Palgrave's 'History of the English Commonwealth,' one may also see illustrations of what went on in the small local courts. "The first stages of a criminal prosecution," says the new circular of the Selden Society, "often take place in the local courts; and the pettier offences are punished there, the King's courts hardly as yet interfering with any crime which falls short of felony. The mediæval law as to offences answering to our modern misdemeanors and offences punishable upon summary conviction, must be found in the rolls of the local courts, which were in truth the police courts of the neighborhood. . . . In short, the whole legal life, and much of the social life, of a mediæval village is recorded in one way or another upon the manor rolls." The 'Select Pleas of the Crown' will be continued hereafter. At present it is thought desirable to give variety to the work of the Society by a volume from the Manor Rolls. If the number of subscribers is large enough, more than one volume will be issued in respect of the year's subscription.

—The recently issued April–May number of the *Bulletin du Bibliophile* makes its appearance with a black border in memory of its editor and publisher, Léon Techener, whose death occurred on the 23d of May, after a long and painful illness. A special number of the *Bulletin* is devoted to an appreciative sketch of his life and labors, from the pen of Baron Ernouf, one of his collaborators. The regular number contains the conclusion of a catalogue of the French publications which bear the imprint, well known to bibliophiles, "À Cologne chez Pierre Marteau"; an article by C. M. Briquet on the utility of water-marks from a bibliographical point of view; and an interesting summary of the results of the recent sale of the Baron de la Roche la Carelle's library. The catalogue contained 550 numbers, and the proceeds of the sale were 540,000 francs. An examination of the catalogue shows that the prices obtained were in most cases exceptionally high, even for these days of high prices, and entitle this sale to rank among the most successful ones of recent years. The famous manuscript book of Hours, with the beautiful miniatures attributed to Memling, which sold for 20,800 francs at the Didot sale in 1878, was bought by E. Paillet for 22,250 francs. It is evident that the bindings of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are still eagerly sought after by collectors; and as the specimens in this collection were in an unusually fine state of preservation the competition was keen. Padeloup and Derome seem to be the favorites; thus, a copy of the 'Offices de la Toussaint' (Paris, 1720.12°) in a magnificent mosaic binding, considered to be the most perfect specimen of Padeloup's work, and bought at the Pichon sale in 1870 for 1,800 francs, brought the astonishing sum of 18,600 francs. A copy of La Fontaine's 'Fables' brought 61 francs at the Nodier sale in 1844, 235 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870, and 805 francs in 1888. One of Derome's bindings was sold in 1837 for 200 francs, in 1869 for 1,450 francs, and in 1888 for 1,880. A fine specimen of Le Gascon's binding, which was bought at Brunet's sale in 1869 for 2,125 francs, sold for 7,150. On the other hand, the infatuation which raged a few years ago for the bindings of Trautz-Bauzonnet seems to have had its day, if this sale affords us any criterion; thus, specimens of his binding which were sold for 3,020 and 1,900 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870 brought only 1,580 and 830 francs in this sale. Another, which sold for 5,000 francs in 1877, brought only 3,055. It is interesting to trace the growth and decline of this rage for his bindings in the history of a specimen of his workmanship, which was sold for 70 francs at the Meon sale in 1804, for 1,800 francs at the Pichon sale in 1870, for 5,900 francs at the Didot sale ten years ago, but which now brings only 2,205 francs. Turning again to the older binders, we find one of Boyet's bindings which was sold at the Pixérécourt sale in 1839 for 260 francs, at the Pichon sale for 1,600, now bringing 3,500 francs.

—The latest number of the *Zeitschrift für deutsches Altertum* (xxxii, pp. 196–334) contains a very searching and scholarly article by Zimmer, on the traces of Germanic (Dano-

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Norwegian) influence in Irish heroic legend. We can give only a few points. Irish history may be divided into three periods: the period prior to the conversion to Christianity, down to 400 A. D.—a purely indigenous state, in which the elements of heroic tradition were formed; second, the period of migration and expansion, notably towards Scotland and Wales, down to the end of the seventh century; third, from 684 A. D. on, a period when the Irish were in turn invaded by Anglo-Saxons, Northmans, and Anglo-Normans. Irish heroic tradition, formed in the first of these periods, was reformed under Christian influences in the second, and cast into the final shape in which we now have it in compilations like the 'Lebor na Huidre' and Leinster Book. This *remaniement* was equivalent to an organic process. It is not until the third period that we discover Germanic influences, and these are evidently misunderstood (and therefore distorted) borrowings from a foreign source. They stand out in marked contrast with the native elements of the great Cuchulinn-Medb cycle. Pages 264-289 treat of Germanic loan-words introduced during this period—*e. g.*, *elta*, 'sword-hilt,' palpably the Danish-Norwegian *helt-* before going over to the specific Iceland form, *hjalt-*. But the cream of the essay for a Germanist will be found on pp. 289-324, where Zimmer shows step by step that the Cuchulinn-cycle contains faded but still recognizable traces (*a*) of the "horny" Sigfrid-myth; (*b*) of the children of the "Mist" (*Nibel-ung*); (*c*) of kinship by blood-drinking (a marked Norse trait); (*d*) of Cuchulinn and four antagonists, holding towards one another the position of Sigfried, Hagen, Gunther, Giselher, Gernot; (*e*) of Hagen's elfish nature reflected in Cuchulinn; (*f*) of the *Tarnkappe*, cap (here mantle) of invisibility; (*g*) of the *ægis-hjalm*, helmet of terror. Zimmer infers that the Irish learned from the Vikings the later, Low-German version of the Nibelung story, as now preserved in the 'Thidreks-saga.' The circumstance that the Irish must have known the story *before* 975 A. D. (an allusion to it being found in a poem by Cinaed, who died in that year), is a fresh confirmation of Edzardi's view, that the story migrated in this shape from Lower Germany to Scandinavia prior to the tenth century.

—Zimmer refers more than once to a previous paper by him, in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* for January, 1887, upon the part played by the Irish element in mediæval culture. We should have called our readers' attention long ago to this remarkable paper. It is of an altogether different character from the present, inasmuch as it deals with known facts of ecclesiastical history. Although it does not contain much that is strictly novel, it gives a graphic picture of the successive groups of Irish missionary monks, their labors in France, Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, their strength, their weaknesses. The author's style is clearness itself, his grouping and illumination of cardinal facts and features are masterly. We cannot attempt to condense what is already so concise. We can only express the wish that the paper may be translated into English. Nowhere else will the reader find such a trustworthy statement of what the Irish accomplished for the early middle ages.

—In Chiapas, a Mexican State bordering on Guatemala and traversed by the upper course of the Grijalva River, a language called Chiapaneco is spoken, which, at an earlier period, is known to have sent an offshoot into Central America. At present the area of the Chiapanec language is limited to a few towns, and the knowledge which linguists have had of it has been rather scanty. It was exhibited in several small books composed by Spanish missionaries, two of which were made public by Mr. Alphonse Pinart in 1875; but its grammatic structure was not fully disclosed by them. Mr. Lucien Adam, the Americanist, recently heard of the existence of two treatises written by Fray Ivan Nuñez in 1633, in this language, and, having utilized them, succeeded in obtaining a much more enlarged knowledge of its structural peculiarities than could previously be had. The curious phonetic processes of the initial syllables also receive more light by his investigations, which have been made public under the title 'La Langue chiapanègue.' The substantives of the language are divided into two classes, the first of which is called *tighe*, and comprises all living beings and a few inanimate objects; the second, *ticao*, embraces all other inanimate things. That there is also a grammatical difference between the two is stated further on. The non-possessive state is marked in each substantive by *n-* prefixed, which also occurs in the Otomi dialects further to the northwest. When the noun is in the possessive state in some of the substantives, we find a strange mode of pointing it out independently of the *suffixed* possessive pronoun, by prefixing *nj-*, *nba-*, *ma-*, *njhi-*, and other syllables to the noun standing in the singular, *copa-*, *co-* to the noun in the plural number. In the verbal inflection there is an exclusive and an inclusive form for the first person in the plural, and this also exists in the pronoun. The inflection of the transitive verb differs somewhat from that of the intransitive, and is based upon a difference of the suffixed personal pronouns. Tenses and modes are formed either by temporal prefixes or by particles placed after the verb, and in many instances by auxiliary verbs. Derivative verbs are formed exclusively by prefixion. Although Adam has failed to add a full verbal paradigm to his volume, he has gathered a large number of words into a vocabulary of forty-five pages, and has also parsed and analyzed some of the devotional texts. We regret that none of the Mexican languages has ever been published by means of a scientific alphabet, since the Spanish alphabet, poor in sounds, is unfit to transcribe any of them accurately.

REID'S LIFE OF FORSTER.

Life of the Right Hon. William Edward Forster. By T. Wemyss Reid. 2 vols. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Mr. Reid has done his work well. His book is not of the first order of biographies, but it is an admirable blending of the private life of a man with sufficient contemporary history to enable us to understand and appreciate his career. As long as the recollections of those events, and the names of the many great and interesting men with whom Forster was associated, remain in the public mind, it will be referred to; and there is much in it that will recommend it to the historian and the searcher after facts to illustrate the annals of our time. For all interested in the history of the abolition movement and the war of 1861-5 so far as it affected British sympathizers, in the struggle for extended education in England, and in late events in Ireland, it has peculiar attractions, and is especially valuable. The story is told "so far as may be in Mr. Forster's own words, in the letters which he addressed to his family and friends, in the diaries which he kept from day to day for a great part of his life. These records speak far more clearly and truthfully than any narrative, however artistic, could do of the character of the man himself." We are given two striking portraits—one from a sketch by Lawrence when Mr. Forster was thirty-three, another (a remarkably characteristic one) from a photograph twenty-three years later, when the cares of the world had marked his countenance. There is a lithograph of the picturesque two-storied thatched cottage where he was born in Dorsetshire, and in the second volume we are shown the interior of his beloved library in his northern home at Wharfeside, in Yorkshire.

William Edward Forster was born in 1818 of the best Quaker blood in England—closely allied to the Gurneys, the Frys, the Buxtons, the Foxes—brought up in the then closely guarded circle of the society distinguished by its costume, speech, and other peculiarities, which, in England, at least, have almost entirely disappeared, and by a philanthropy which has, we hope, now become common to all sects and creeds. We are given a charming picture of the almost cloister-like influences under which the only child was reared in the lovely old home to which the father, William Forster, had brought his bride, Anna Buxton:

"In this modest home husband and wife settled down to a life of quiet happiness, the foundation of which was their mutual devotion to the work to which both had felt themselves to be called [religious ministry]. Poverty of the sordid kind was not permitted to enter their doors, and yet they were very poor, only being able to make both ends meet by the exercise of a rigid economy and self-denial faced with equal courage and contentment by both. Both were very fond of flowers—the wife's preference being, however, for the simple wild flowers of the wayside. . . . It was not, however, in the adornment of their cottage home, in the culture of their innocent natural tastes, that the newly married couple found their chief delight."

They found it in helping their poorer neighbors, and in that work in the ministry to which they felt themselves called. Indeed, Forster may be said to have been born to sympathy with the American slave and with Ireland. His father was, like the whole connection, deeply engaged in the anti-slavery movement. His mother, shortly after her marriage and before his birth, spent three months as a minister in Ireland, and when William was two years old, his father felt called to visit friends in America, where he remained five years. This parting and separation were very bitter to husband and wife.

"My depths have been at times very deep," writes the wife in her first letter to her husband after his departure. "I have felt, indeed; but I must reverently acknowledge that I have been greatly, unexpectedly, supported and comforted again and again, and that in a way so sweet to my feelings. Sometimes I have felt such a cheerful calm I could not doubt where it came from, and then such a lively sense at times that my dearest was only gone for a time, that he is coming back to me. . . . But though this has predominated above expectation, I have indeed had to drink a bitter cup; a very suffering path has this separation been to me, and must I not expect will often be? . . . Our darling boy is finely and truly lovely, so very affectionate in his manner, in such a sweet disposition this last day or two. He puts his hand out when I ask where dear papa is, and says 'Gone.' And when I asked if he loved thee, he answered me, 'Yes.'"

Truly, if those old Quaker conceptions of "calls" and of following "spiritual leadings," often in the very face of reason and sometimes of common sense, brought much suffering and anguish in partings and in trials of all kinds, they brought also well-springs of content and joy in clear-cut conceptions of duty and spiritual guidance.

Under such influences the boy grew up:

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"It was of this period of his childhood that Mr. Forster often in after life told with amusement a characteristic anecdote. He was travelling in a coach in the charge of his nurse, when a benevolent old gentleman began to talk to him. 'Where is your papa, my dear?' said his fellow-passenger. 'Papa is preaching in America,' was the reply. 'And where is your mamma?' continued the gentleman. 'Mamma is preaching in Ireland,' was the answer which the astounded stranger received."

They separately paid many visits to both America and Ireland. The father eventually died in Tennessee upon one of these visits—a visit in which his desire for abolition and his yearnings towards his coreligionists in the South were combined. One of the most touching passages in these volumes is the account of Forster's visit late in life to the family with whom his father died, and to his grave.

Young Forster was educated at home. He had not the advantages of the public-school and university training then (more than now) considered essential to great success in life. If he lost in a worldly sense, he gained in others—the spiritual part of his nature was perhaps more developed; he acquired a passionate love for scenery, and a hatred of cruelty to animals and of field sports which rather intensified as years advanced. He was early interested in politics on the Liberal side, and kept a journal. When but twelve he writes regarding a candidate in an election: "Was he to be blamed because the lowest of the mob, who care not on which side they are, have happened to commit excesses on his? Was he to be blamed because that by a few of the true words he had said he had further excited the people? No." Somewhat later, his essays at a private school are suggestive of the future politician: "On the Conduct of England to Uncivilized Nations," "The Advantages to Civilization from Education," "The Causes of the Misery with which Ireland has been and is now Afflicted" (a vigorous indictment of English rule), "The Lawfulness of Rebelling against an Unjust Law."

Under the best and sweetest and wisest influences, the child grew into the lad—the lad into the man. His father's conscientiousness and nervous solicitude regarding his welfare rendered the choice of a business difficult. His uncle, Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, offered him a place and a certainty of competence in his brewery. This Forster declined from conscientious motives. There were other openings connected with the sale of slave produce where scruples likewise barred a settlement. Finally, at twenty-three, apparently upon borrowed capital, he entered into those partnerships in woolstapling and manufacturing in Bradford which, almost from the first, were successful, and brought him ease and sufficient leisure, and from which he retired a wealthy man some thirty years later. He threw himself with characteristic energy into business and into the public affairs of the town. His character assumed some of the more rugged features we associate with the north of England. He was agitated with all the doubts and interests of a vigorous young mind. He wrote for the *Westminster Review* and other periodicals, and became known in the literary and political world. We are given a delightful and characteristic account of a sojourn which the Carlyles made at his bachelor home. Emerson also visited there.

Mr. Forster's marriage to a daughter of Dr. Arnold of Rugby was a happy one. They had no children; the adoption of an orphaned family of Arnold nephews and nieces gave him much of the affections and interest in life which children of his own would have afforded. His annual Continental tour, extending and lengthening as means and opportunity increased, appear to have been made more with one of his adopted daughters than with his wife. The death of his father and mother perhaps hastened the throwing off the Quakerism which in many respects had ill-suited his vigorous masculine nature. In the burly captain of volunteers going up for a term of musketry instruction at Hyde, we see a striking change from the timid Quaker lad of earlier years. And from Quakerism, and having passed through the religious strivings common to all liberal English thinkers who lived through the Forties, Forster settled down in that apparently sincere acceptance of Christianity as expressed by Episcopalianism, which, in men of his stamp, is a puzzle to so many foreigners. Forster now became a political power in the north of England. His desire to enter Parliament was gratified in 1861. From the first he made his mark. He was just in time to take a decisive stand in the contest then commencing with us. It did not require the appearance of Mr. Cairnes's 'Slave Power,' or the taking of Vicksburg, or the victory at Gettysburg, to induce him to side with the North. From the first his views were clear upon the question at issue. Shortly after his election, lecturing before the Bradford Mechanics' Institute, he said:

"The war arose from the difficulty of solving the problem whether Christian and civilized men should keep numbers of their fellow-creatures in bondage—more particularly when those men were not in a distant country, but living among them in their very homesteads as it were—and keep them as slaves, and treat them as though they were beasts."

His earliest serious interest in public affairs had been when he was called upon to assist his uncle, Sir T. F. Buxton, in arranging for the unfortunate Niger expedition. So his earliest Parliamentary efforts were engaged with Bright and Cobden in the almost forlorn hope of keeping England from openly siding with the Rebellion; and later, in the Cabinet, he was mainly instrumental in preventing the shipwreck of the *Alabama* arbitration. Yet he never abandoned his feelings as an Englishman. He was ready to go to war if Mason and Slidell had not been returned; he was prepared equally to face a future of alienation from the United States if the claims for consequential damages had not been abandoned. His name will always be associated with the English Education Bill of 1870—the carrying through of which was a work any statesman might be proud of—a measure which, at the time of his death, had doubled the number of public schools and trebled the number of scholars in England. It was eminently statesmanlike, eminently what we are accustomed to regard as Anglo-Saxon in its mode of working—based upon no ideal uniform system, but aiming to accomplish the maximum of effect; availing itself as far as possible of old-established systems, with the least possible disturbance to prejudices or vested rights and interests. His refusal to prosecute, while recalling, Gov. Eyre, had earned for him the hostility of many of his philanthropic friends. His measure of education brought him into permanent conflict with many of his old radical associates, who believed he betrayed the cause of progress and enlightenment in refusing to strike a blow through it at the prestige and influence of the clergy. "It was his lot either to be deeply loved or strongly disliked by those with whom he was brought into contact."

Mr. Forster had been all his life interested in Ireland. He paid several sympathetic visits during the famine; he was mainly instrumental in rousing British philanthropic feeling to the gravity of the catastrophe. In 1848 he had written that "the only way to benefit Ireland was to make it a home instead of a prison." He had, after Smith O'Brien's abortive *émeute*, offered an asylum to the father of John Dillon. It was his earnest desire to be numbered among the permanent benefactors of Ireland and her people. He eagerly accepted the Irish Chief Secretaryship as an opportunity to carry into practice his life-long desires. We are not inclined too nicely to apportion the mistakes and want of sympathy that led to his failure in that capacity. Mr. Reid has a simple explanation in the inherent devilment of the Irish leaders and "their dupes." In the cataclysm which long neglect of vital questions had induced, no one in the position of Irish Secretary working through the permanent Castle officials could have succeeded—certainly not Mr. Forster, whose kind motives were encased in a triple English confidence in the capacity of himself and his party to settle the question without regard to the wishes and prejudices of those concerned. Had it been a question affecting Englishmen to the same proportionate extent as Irishmen, Mr. Forster and the Cabinet would have resigned when the "Compensation for Disturbance Bill" was thrown out. The Irish members and people were then in no mood to make it pleasant for any Chief Secretary. They were not always fair to him. His substitution of buckshot for bullets arose from a humane preference for wounding rather than killing; but it was little likely the Irish people would be attracted towards a ruler who discussed in any form the manner in which they should be shot down.

The Irish land question had been made the life-long study of many prominent Irishmen in Ireland who never took any part in national politics. So far as we know, Mr. Forster and the Cabinet to which he belonged approached a settlement without the slightest consultation with such men. In an English struggle of a like character they would never have applied coercion before reform. Subsequent events have proved that it was not altogether sinister motives which induced Mr. Parnell and his friends to advise the Irish farmers to be slow in availing themselves of the Land Act. There was some ground for the Irish people believing that Lord Houghton's dictum, with which Mr. Reid opens one of his chapters, touching the Birmingham Radicals who objected to Forster's success in education ("There is nothing that riles mankind so much as seeing the objects they desire, accomplished by other means than their own"), might be taken home by Mr. Forster himself.

At page 386, vol. ii., Mr. Reid refers to an incident which, after the passage of the Land Act, "added greatly to Forster's anxiety"—the publication, under the authority of the Land Commission, of a pamphlet expounding the advantages of the act, but "in which the suppressed Land League was extolled" (Mr. Fottrell, its author, Solicitor to the Land Commission, lost his appointment of £1,000 a year on the heels of it). A copy of the pamphlet lies before us as we write. We cannot see that the Land League is therein directly extolled. Mr. Fottrell appears to us very naturally and wisely to have endeavored to draw the Irish people to accept the benefits of the act by urging upon them the truth that its principles were the same as those for which Davitt, Parnell, and Dillon contended when they established the Land League. Eight hundred men in prison on his personal fiat, real criminals at large, outrage in full swing, formed a sad conclusion to Mr. Forster's desires for the good of Ireland. There is something pathetic in his clear perception that all hope was at an end of his ever benefiting the land which he in truth loved so well.

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With Mr. Gladstone's acceptance of the Kilmainham Treaty, Mr. Forster's official life terminated, and he returned almost with a feeling of relief to social life, his books, his whist-playing, and his travels.

THE GOSPEL OF PROTECTION.

Principles of the Economic Philosophy of Society, Government, and Industry. By Van Buren Denslow, LL.D. Cassell & Co.

In this work the American system of political economy may be said to have attained its most perfect development. Those eminent Philadelphians, Messrs. Elder, Kelley, and Swank, have elaborated portions of the system, and the great Carey undoubtedly conceived it all; but it was reserved for the present author to give it full and rounded completeness. It is true that some of Carey's works apparently exceed this volume in bulk, but we are confident that comparison will show that these 700 closely printed pages contain more assertions and upon a greater variety of topics than are to be found in any 5,000 pages of Carey's. Carey, it must be admitted, sometimes repeated himself. But Dr. Denslow, it will generally be found, when he seems about to repeat himself, skilfully alters his facts. The scope of his book is immense, and he is entitled to proclaim, in the language of *Faust* in the opening of Goethe's play, the encyclopædic character of his studies.

Nor do we think that in the matter of style he will suffer if compared with Carey. There is the same exuberance of expression, the same indifference to the pedantic trammels of logicians, the same frankness in the expression of feeling towards other writers, the same efflorescent invective, the same inimitable humor. What happier combination of refined feeling and tasteful expression can be found than in the allusion to Adam Smith as the "intellectual *valet de chambre* to a nobleman's son"? How the traditionary reputation of the arch free-trader totters under such a blow as this! And what an incomparable mingling of wit and logic is to be found in the following *reductio ad absurdum* of Malthus's law of population:

"The law is, that as the laborer's income expands, his power and tendency to procreate expands at the same rate . . . Hence, if A. T. Stewart married on an income of say $1,000 a year, or say $500 each for himself and wife, the so-called law of Malthus would have required when his income reached $6,000,000 a year that Mrs. Stewart should have borne him 12,000 children. In fact, she did not bear him one. Yet Englishmen like Bonamy Price keep on declaring that the Malthus law has to do with Political Economy, when it is only a form of unconscious humor, designed to enable persons to be most amusing when they imagine they are most authoritative."

It is hardly necessary to say that the hypocritical policy of England is thoroughly exposed by Dr. Denslow. "The Cobden Club adopts as its motto, 'Peace, good will among the nations,' but every sunrise is announced by the reveille of English drums, awakening English soldiers to back with the bayonet some new intrusion on the rights of barbarian races, in order to secure to British factories the profits of selling breech-clouts and wooden gods to some new tribe of heathen, to the prejudice of the local manufacture." India especially has suffered. Before the English conquest, its wealth and prosperity were fabulous. It is now a pauper nation, a burden to those who have fed on its riches. Once it "included, in its population, all ranks and grades of wealth, except the famine-stricken and the suffering." It had "all the appliances of a vast and active interior commerce, engaging the activities and satisfying all the wants of a population larger than that of all Europe." To-day the country "contains virtually a population of 200,000,000 paupers." By a tax of 3,000 per cent. on salt many of these paupers are converted into earthworms, being compelled by the poverty to which British free trade has reduced them to swallow earth for the sake of the saline particles which it contains.

The fate of Ireland has been almost equally pitiable, and Dr. Denslow succeeds in adding a new and particularly aggravated offence to the long list of English iniquities. It is well known that England taxes imported tobacco very heavily; and to prevent this import duty from causing Irish and Scotch farmers to cultivate tobacco, which, as Dr. Denslow very justly observes, "they could do at an enormous profit, by reason of the duty thus imposed on the foreign article"—the Government makes it a criminal offence to cultivate the plant anywhere in Great Britain. By this suicidal policy, which is fatuously said to take not a penny from the people that does not go to the treasury, the Irish farmer has been robbed of this enormous profit.

"No one can tell how peculiarly the climate of Ireland might have proved to be adapted to the culture of tobacco, if it had been allowed. It might have proved to be as much superior to any other point in the world, for the culture of the leaf, as the Southern States are for the culture of cotton. In that case Ireland could have produced the tobacco crop of the world, and, instead of famine and decline, might have maintained a population of nine to twelve millions of people."

We quote this passage not only as proving the studied injustice of a free-trade government towards its subjects, but also as exhibiting the characteristic tendency of professors of the American system to rely upon facts instead of theories. Nothing can exceed the severity with which Dr. Denslow condemns the use of theories and suppositions by the free-trade writers, and he obviously feels a pride—which could be justified by a hundred passages like that which we have quoted—in the freedom of his own eye from beams of this character. As examples of his facts, we may refer to the statement that Adam Smith says that the profit-maker is a vampire that merely sucks the producer's blood, and maligns capitalists as the crafty purloiners of what they have had no hand in producing; that it is rising profits alone that can ever be the potential cause of rising wages; that the (American) poor usually have more healthy labor and less harassing care, and are more likely to eat well-cooked food, than the rich; that the (English) poor are engrossed with constant cares, and oppressed with half-satisfied wants, fighting their way from day to day, or from meal to meal, in the dull struggle for subsistence; that the doctrine of the balance of trade is true; and that the inventive faculties of English workmen since 1846 are relatively latent.

The cause of this relative latency is, of course, the free-trade policy of England. The abolition of the corn laws diminished the population of Ireland in five years by three-eighths. What is still more striking, the abolition of the corn laws, although it destroyed the profits of the farmers and put a stop to the cultivation of corn upon vast areas, can hardly be admitted to have reduced the price at all. "The average for the five years preceding 1846 was 54s. 11 2-5d., in 1846 it was 54s. 8d., and for the eleven years following 1846 it was 55s. 5¼d., or 8d. higher for the eleven years after the repeal than for the five years before it." With great deference to Dr. Denslow's authority, we yet find it somewhat difficult to reconcile this fact with the fact stated a few lines before, that the average price "for the eleven years 1847 to 1857, inclusive, was 47s. 3d." It seems to be an error of judgment to bring these facts into such close juxtaposition. Doubtless each is true for its own particular use, for the masters of the American system fully understand that truth presents itself in many different aspects, and that these aspects must be selected from with reference to the end in view; but the arrangement chosen by Dr. Denslow might be criticised by an "interested vitriol-thrower"—the term by which he racily designates the hostile reviewer—as not the happiest for his argument.

Lest this criticism should seem unduly severe, we hasten to point out an instance where the disposition of opposite phases of fact is arranged with admirable judgment. In reply to the malicious attempt of the free-traders to stir up strife between workmen and masters by suggesting that if the tariff is to benefit labor, duties should be levied, not upon imported goods, but upon imported laborers, Dr. Denslow states the following conclusive facts:

"In excluding immigrants by wholesale without selection, each industry would be excluding its customers in a larger degree than its competitors. Suppose that, to benefit the wages of shoemakers, we exclude all immigrants. An analysis of those who would come shows that only one in fifty-eight of the immigrants who would come would make shoes. But one in fifty-eight of our entire population makes shoes. Therefore the shoemakers would have shut out fifty-seven customers in order to shut out one competitor. But the fifty-seven customers whom they would have shut out would have added as much to the demand as the one excluded shoemaker would have contributed towards the supply."

Now, we find over 100 pages away from this, in a footnote and in fine print, the fact stated that one shoemaker, working in a boot and shoe factory, furnishes 1,000 men, or more than 1,000 women, with all the boots and shoes they require in a year. Had these facts been stated in close connection, they would obviously have tended to confuse the argument. But as they are stated, it is highly improbable that any one who reads the first will recall it when he reaches the second. In fact, the present generation of readers has become so superficial and fastidious that most of them will probably skip the footnotes altogether, and may even find portions of the text too much for their enfeebled powers of assimilation.

We pass by with great reluctance Dr. Denslow's proof that a man may enrich himself by maintaining a large number of household servants, and many other delightful demonstrations. But we cannot omit all reference to his original treatment of the subject of taxation. It is the peculiarity of taxes that they cannot be proved to be a burden to any one, while their beneficial results can be easily seen. "Neither the statesman nor the citizen, in fact, cares or needs to know who pays the tax." The question is "a mere philosophical and metaphysical subtlety." Thus, if the sale of liquor be taxed,

"a half or a third of the persons that would else engage in it go out of it, thus enlarging the ratio of customers to those that remain, and hence removing from them the tax. . . . The customer will declare that he is not taxed, as he gets his goods of as good quality and at as low a price as before, but from fewer merchants. The persons who go out of the business cannot be said to pay the tax, since they go into other kinds of business and are not in the line from whence the tax comes. The liquor-seller who remains certainly does not pay it, as the increase of custom resulting from driving his competitors out of the business has reimbursed him."

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These truths apply to taxes on land and other taxes, but during the present political campaign they are of peculiar interest as affecting the question of the whiskey tax. As it does not raise the price to the consumer it cannot reduce the consumption, so that the Republicans are justified in abolishing it. On the other hand, as it is burdensome to no one and very productive of revenue, the Democrats are justified in retaining it. "The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it." Or, as Dr. Denslow remarks with as much wisdom as scholarship, "*omnium vivum ex ovo* finds its complement in *omnium ovum ex vivo*."

Upon the whole, we can sincerely commend this volume to our readers as containing the very best exposition of protectionism, its theory and its facts, its animus and its methods, that is now in existence or that is likely to be hereafter produced. The passage with which we must conclude our quotations, might well constitute the platform of a protection party and be taught in the political catechism of young Americans:

"Protection is the mountain. It is eternal. Free trade is the mirage. If it advances, it dissolves. It can only make with protection the same kind of an issue as the non-existing and impossible makes with the universal, natural, and inevitable. It is a fight between something and nothing. Protection is an economy; free trade is a give-away, a waste. Protection is constructive; free trade is destructive. . . . Protection investigates, consults, harmonizes, unites. Free trade disintegrates, divides, slanders, besmirches, and disorganizes. Protection collects facts. Free trade is oracular, pompous, and issues dogmas."

SWEET'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS.

A History of English Sounds. By Henry Sweet. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1888.

In the whole domain of philology there is probably no more discouraging subject than the history of English sound-change. If we consider the modern language, we encounter a multitude of unexplored dialects, scattered over all quarters of the globe, and characterized by vowel shades too numerous to classify and too delicate to define; if we turn to the origins, we find two utterly different elements, one Germanic, the other French—the pronunciation of the one to a great extent uncertain, that of the other still more doubtful. No wonder, then, that while all other branches of linguistic study were flourishing, English historical phonology was long an almost unknown science. So it remained until Ellis began, some twenty years ago, to publish his 'Early English Pronunciation,' a work which of itself places English philology almost on a level with that of other nations.

Ellis's great production is, then, and doubtless always will be our storehouse of information for sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth-century sounds. Still, as is usually the case with books which create a science, it does not entirely meet the needs of any class of readers: for the general student it is too bulky and not sufficiently straightforward, while for the specialist it is scarcely full or trustworthy enough in its examination of the origin and earliest phases of English. In these and some other respects Sweet's 'History of English Sounds,' though largely but an outgrowth of 'Early English Pronunciation,' is a decided improvement. It is remarkably concise, the reading matter occupying only 279 pages; its arrangement is historical, and the earlier stages of the language are satisfactorily treated. Sweet is a man eminently fitted for such work: as a phonetician he has no superior; he has studied living English sounds with more success than any one else; he is justly celebrated as an Anglo-Saxon and Middle English scholar; his wide acquaintance with modern tongues gives him unusual facilities for making comparisons; he attaches due importance to the results of recent scientific research.

Although this 'History of English Sounds' follows the same general plan as the author's earlier work, published among the Transactions of the Philological Society for 1873-4, it is essentially a new book. Under the title 'English Sounds,' the author apparently includes only sounds of Germanic origin; the French element of our language, which received no systematic treatment from Ellis, being scarcely mentioned at all by Sweet.* The chapter on Middle English orthography contains, however, some excellent remarks on Old French pronunciation and spelling. The volume begins with a very concise chapter on phonetics—a statement so brief as to be unintelligible to those not already familiar with Sweet's system. For accurate notation the revised Visible Speech characters are used. Bell's vowel signs, which remain intact, are easy to remember, but the consonant system, the unity of which has been disturbed by necessary changes and additions, requires frequent reference to the table on p. 6. It would, by the way, be well if room could be made in this table for the symbols representing the rounded back open consonants. The numerous diacritics are, at first, especially confusing. Still, this alphabet is certainly the best yet devised for the purpose; it is simpler and more exact than Ellis's Palæotype or Glossotype. Sweet, moreover, uses the familiar Broad Romic characters wherever he finds it possible.

After the summary of the principal facts of phonetics, we have a much longer description of the general tendencies of sound-change. Here the author utilizes to a considerable extent Paul's 'Principien der Sprachgeschichte' and Sievers's 'Phonetik.' He divides sound-mutations into *internal isolative*, *internal combinative*, *acoustic*, and *external* changes. This whole matter of the universal principles of sound-change is extremely uncertain and perplexing. The subject of internal isolative changes is an especially delicate one; and although Sweet handles it with great caution, he cites some examples for which specialists in the various departments would perhaps account by other principles, as, for instance, the change from Latin *teneo*, *valeam* to Italian *tengo*, *valga*. A synopsis of the entire treatise is given on pp. 402-3. Next come very short chapters on the "Origin of Speech-Sounds" and the "Origin of Dialects," the second of which, although it contains nothing absolutely new, is well worth reading. The important subject of sound representation is treated at greater length.

The actual history of English sounds begins with a study (written before the appearance of Brugmann's 'Grundriss') of Indo-European, for which the author uses the less clumsy name *Arian*. In this chapter Keltic is not touched upon at all, and in the exposition of the vowels only Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and Germanic are cited. The Germanic sounds and the Runes are next taken up, the main points being clearly and briefly stated. In the examination of Runes, Sweet, although his chief authority is Wimmer, favors the theory of their Greek origin. Then we pass on to Old English, which covers some thirty-five pages. Here Sievers is the principal authority followed. Scandinavian requires a special chapter, after which the author traces the mutations of English sounds through Middle English, Modern English (for this Sweet relies mainly on Ellis), and Living English. Throughout the Old and Middle English periods the numerous dialects, with their varied and rapidly changing phonetic tendencies, render a concise statement of the laws of sound-change excessively hard to write and almost equally difficult to follow. In Modern and Living English, matters are simplified by the development of a national language. This standard English was originally the London dialect, which was itself principally East Midland. About the beginning of the eighteenth century, spelling became fixed, and before long it began to exercise a decided influence on the pronunciation. It has not, however, greatly impeded phonetic growth: many important changes are even now going on. In Living English the most striking feature is the power of stress, which alters or destroys unaccented syllables, and develops double forms of those words that are sometimes accented and sometimes unemphatic.

At the back of the book there are several lists and tables. The "First Word-List"—a most valuable contribution to science—contains the Old-English, Middle-English, and present forms of most Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian words that have been preserved in the language. As these words are arranged not alphabetically but according to the vowels they contain, an alphabetical index is provided. The "Second Word-List" contains modern words in both phonetic and conventional spelling, compared with the Anglo-Saxon originals. Special tables give the various forms of English letters; a comparison of the vowels in Old English, Middle English, and Living English; schemes of the vowels in Old and Middle-English dialects; a comparison of the vowels in late Middle English, the first, second, and third periods of Modern English, and Living English. A list on pp. 265-6 shows the vowel-changes produced in Modern and Living English by a following *r*. These tables are a great help to the reader; several more would be acceptable.

The text is surprisingly free from errors. To the very short list of "Errata" may be added the following: § 121, last line, for *long* read *short*; p. 38, l. 2, for *before* read *after*; p. 63, l. 6, for *what* read *that*; p. 68, third line from the bottom, for *become* read *becomes*; p. 191, l. 2, for *lead* read *led*; § 926, l. 1, for *after* read *before*. In the list of contractions, on pp. 408-9, should be inserted *nl=namely*.

"The most serious defect of the book," says Sweet in his preface, "is that I have not been able to make any general use of the modern English and Scotch dialects, which (with a few brilliant exceptions) have been treated in such a way as to make them worse than useless for purposes of historical philology. American English and Irish English are equally important and equally inaccessible at present." The various American vowel-systems, the modification of vowels before *r*, the fall of *r* not followed by a vowel in some American dialects and its retention (or restoration) in others, the pronunciation of *h* and *wh*, are all highly interesting and important subjects for research. Prof. Primer has made a beginning in his study of "Charleston Provincialisms" (*Phonetische Studien*, I., 3). Now that philologists are directing their attention more and more to living speech, now that modern language-teachers in this country are becoming interested in phonetics (as is shown by the recent formation of a Phonetic Section in the Modern Language

* It has been recently studied by Behrens ('Beiträge zur Geschichte der französischen Sprache in England.' I. Heilbronn. 1886). A course on "The French Element in English" is among the announcements for the coming year at Harvard College.

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Association), we may hope that when the time comes for a new edition of Sweet's work our American dialects will no longer be wholly "inaccessible."

Missouri; A Bone of Contention. By Lucien Carr. [American Commonwealths Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 377.

Mr. Carr well describes Missouri as a bone of contention, for her position long made her the debatable ground between dissimilar civilizations. In the beginning, when the Mississippi was sought mainly as the pathway to the rich fur trade of the Northwest, her situation by the meeting places of the Missouri and the Ohio with the Mississippi was so favorable that a little group of French settlements sprang up very early, and speedily became a prosperous farming community, characterized by a gentle Arcadian simplicity of nature unchanged until the restless westward movement of the English from the Atlantic colonies reached and revolutionized it. Mr. Carr draws a pleasant picture of those early days. The farmers, and there were none but farmers there, made no pretence to learning, and they had no more use for shops than for books. The fertile soil supplied nearly all their needs. What few other goods they required, some richer tillers of the soil kept packed away in chests in their houses, and anything more that they wanted they could send for to New Orleans or to Philadelphia or Montreal, the next time that a boat began the long and dangerous journey. They were indolent enough, and had no more care for modern progress than they had for Puritan zeal for religion, but they were happy, hospitable, and honest. The pleasure-loving tastes natural to their Gallic temperament were fostered by their prosperity and by their gregarious habit of clustering in villages, and probably there never was a happier community in this country. They had plenty of games and sports, and did not grumble because they had no spinning-wheels or churns. They had no enemies; even the Indians whom they dispossessed could not get up a serious quarrel with them. The nearest thing to a war ended by the disgusted redmen coming to Gen. Trudeau and telling him with delicious frankness:

"We have come to offer you peace. We have been at war with you many moons, and what have we done? Nothing. Our warriors have tried many means to meet yours in battle, but you will not. You dare not fight us. You are a parcel of old women. What can be done with such a people but make peace, since you will not fight? I come therefore to offer you peace, and to bury the hatchet, to brighten the chain, and to again open the way between us."

This idyllic state of things had to come to an end when the Anglo-Saxons arrived; and the great river highway was too great a prize to be long overlooked. But the change in civilization was peaceful, and at first brought rapid growth and wealth; though there soon came a disastrous flurry of speculation, and before long began the long struggle over slavery between the different civilizations of the North and South, the quickly broken compromise, and at last the culmination in civil war. Here again the geographical situation of Missouri, as a wedge entering a vital part of the North, made her one of the first fields of battle, and determined her final possession by that party to which her agricultural character as a corn and not a cotton State inclined her, in spite of the predilection from her Southern ancestry.

Mr. Carr tells the story with a decided prepossession for the Southern party, which generally is no defect, though once or twice it carries him too far. It is too severe a stretch to speak of the shameful mob attack on Lovejoy as justifiable under the natural right of self-defence, or of the seizure of United States property as sanctioned by States' Rights; and the miserable part played by Missouri in the Kansas struggle is far too leniently treated. Still, there is an evident intention to be fair, and to give the facts on which judgment is to be founded.

It is a point on which there is room for a good deal of doubt, whether Missouri would have thrown her lot in with the South if less vigorous measures had been taken by the Federals at the beginning of the war. Her sober reason and her business interests inclined her to the North, but her Southern blood was so inflammable that a straw might have turned the scale. It would not have taken much in 1861 to kindle the mob fury which had burned so hotly against the Mormons and against their Kansas neighbors. But it is well enough to give Missouri the benefit of the doubt. Meanwhile, Northern immigration has changed her character, and given a very far away look to the old pugnacity.

Cæsar's Army: A Study of the Military Art of the Romans in the Last Days of the Republic. By Harry Pratt Judson. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1888. 12mo, pp. 127.

It was a good idea of Prof. Judson's to call his book 'Cæsar's Army,' and aim to give a description of the Roman military system just as it was in the closing years of the Republic, without consideration of the steps by which it was brought to this condition, or, on the other hand, of its later fortunes. There is no more fertile source of misunderstanding in Roman antiquities—whether civil or military—than the habit of confounding different periods, and associating with the age of Cicero and Cæsar institutions that had been long outgrown in their time. We do not doubt that most students who have given any attention to the subject at all have a vague notion that Cæsar's legions, like those of Scipio, were made up of *hastati, principes,* and *triarii.* The student of the volume before us will be preserved from that misapprehension. At the same time, we think the book could be made more useful, without sacrificing this merit, by an introduction, which should give a brief statement of the military system as it was in the time of the war with Hannibal, and an appendix which should describe the principal changes under the Empire.

This volume contains the excellent maps and plans adapted by Prof. Judson from Napoleon's 'Life of Cæsar' for Allen and Greenough's edition of Cæsar's 'Gallic War,' and many of the illustrations in that work. The substance, however, while, of course, identical in many points with the notes of that edition, is, as a whole, entirely independent of them. It is a complete and systematic treatise upon the Roman military system in the last century of the Republic, based principally upon Rüstow and Göler, and with many helpful illustrations from modern warfare and judicious discussions of the theories presented. We find occasional infelicities in statement or expression, such as (of a particular method of command, p. 7), "Only the solidity and uniformity of the Roman array made it possible for them"—where "them" has no antecedent. Again, it is misleading to say (p. 6) that each maniple was divided into two centuries, just as each cohort was divided into three maniples. The student certainly would understand that the maniple and century were divisions of the same character, if of different grade; but he is told directly after that the maniple corresponded to the modern company, while the century corresponded to the platoon, being a temporary and shifting division. We cannot accept the argument, on page 14, that the maniples at this period had no standards, these having been superseded by the standard of the cohort. Many scholars, indeed, are of opinion that the *cohort* never had a standard of its own—a view precisely the opposite to that here presented. It seems to us, however, that the introduction by Marius of the standard for legion and cohort would not necessarily supersede the older system, but that the new would more likely be added to the old. The examples given by Mr. Judson certainly do not prove his point.

Trois Empereurs d'Allemagne: Guillaume Ier, Frédéric III., Guillaume II. Par Ernest Lavisse. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1888. 12mo, pp. 295.

Prof. Lavisse has collected in this volume four articles which first appeared in the *Journal des Débats* and the *Revue Bleue.* They are of various degrees of merit. The first chapter, dealing with the Emperor William I., is nothing more nor less than a newspaper article, bristling with turgid rhetoric and setting forth well known and undisputed facts with the excited manner of one who is enriching mankind with some startling and important discovery. The second and third chapters, concerned with Frederick, are less sensational in tone, but the instinct of the penny-a-liner betrays itself when, out of less than a hundred pages set apart to relating Frederick's career, the author expends ten in describing the wedding of the Prince to the Princess Victoria, and ekes out his tale of bricks by translating a portion of the Church of England marriage service. The fourth chapter, having the present Emperor for its subject, and written after his accession on the 15th of June of this year, is really the only part of the book that has value enough to warrant reprinting it. Such value as it has, it owes to the circumstance that comparatively little has as yet been printed in permanent form concerning William II., so that the author is one of the first-comers with useful information about the education and early years of the young ruler. It is due to Prof. Lavisse to note that he possesses the merit, rare in Frenchmen, of writing on German affairs without rancor or chauvinism, and has taken pains to obtain correct information. His countrymen may read his book with profit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Benjamin, L. Why Was It? Belford, Clarke & Co.
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Bigelow, J. Emmanuel Swedenborg. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Brackett, Anna C., and Eliot, Ida M. The Silver Treasury: holiday edition of Poetry for Home and School. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
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